

THE
PRINCIPLES
OF
MECHANICS;

Explaining and Demonstrating

The General LAWS of MOTION,

THE

LAWS OF GRAVITY,

Motion of DESCENDING BODIES,

PROJECTILES, || PENDULUMS,
MECHANIC POWERS, || CENTERS OF GRAVITY, &c.

STRENGTH and STRESS of TIMBER,

HYDROSTATICS, and CONSTRUCTION of MACHINES.

*Multaque per Trochleas, & Tympana pondere magno
Commovent, atque levi sustollit Machina nisu.*

LUCRET. Lib. IV.

L O N D O N:

Printed for W. INNYS and J. RICHARDSON, in
Pater-noster Row.

MDCCCLIV.



164-1019

THE P R E F A C E.

THE art of MECHANICS being the first that men had occasion to make use of, it is reasonable to suppose that it took its beginning with man; and was studied in the earliest ages of the world. For no sooner did mankind begin to people the earth, than they wanted houses to dwell in, cloaths to wear, and utensils to till the ground, to get them bread; with other necessaries of life; and being thus destitute of proper habitations, and other conveniencies of life; their wants must immediately put them upon the study of Mechanics. At their first setting out, they would be content with very little theory, endeavouring to get that more by experience than reasoning, and being unacquainted with numbers or any sort of calculation; and having neither rule nor compass to work by, nor instruments to work with, but such as they must invent first of all, nor any methods of working; With all these disadvantages, we may judge what sort of work they were likely to make. All their contrivances must be mere guessing, and they could but ill execute what they had so badly contrived; and must be continually mending their work by repeated trials, till they got it to such a form as to make a shift to serve for the use designed. And this is the first and lowest state of Mechanics, which was enough to give a beginning to it; and in this state it doubtless remained for a long time, without much improvement. But at length as men found more leisure and

P R E F A C E

opportunity, and gained more experience, manual arts began to take their rise, and by degrees to make some progress in the world.

But we meet with no considerable inventions in the mechanical way, for a long series of ages; or if there had been any, the accounts of them are now lost through the length of time; for we have nothing upon record for 2 or 3 thousand years forward. But afterwards we find an account of several machines that were in use. For we read in Genesis that ships were as old even on the Mediterranean as the days of Jacob. We likewise read that the Philistines brought 30 thousand chariots into the field against Saul; so that chariots were in use 1070 years before Christ. And about the same time architecture was brought into Europe. And 1030 years before Christ Ammon built long and tall ships with sails, on the Red sea and the Mediterranean. And about 90 years after, the ship Argo was built; which was the first Greek vessel that ventured to pass through the sea, by help of sails, without sight of land, being guided only by the stars. Dædalus also who lived 980 years before Christ, made sails for ships, and invented several sorts of tools for carpenters and joiners to work with. He also made several moving statues, which could walk or run of themselves. And about 800 years before Christ, we find in 2 Chron. 15. that Uzziah made in Jerusalem, engines invented by cunning men, to be on the towers and upon the bulwarks, to shoot arrows and great stones withal. Corn-mills were early invented, for we read in Deuteronomy, that it was not lawful for any man to take the nether or the upper millstone to pledge; yet water was not applied to mills before the year of Christ 600, nor windmills used before the year 1200. Likewise 580 years before Christ, we read in Jeremiah 18, of the potter's wheel. Architas was the first that applied mathematics to mechanics, but left no mechanical writings behind him. He made a wooden pigeon that could fly about. Archimedes who
lived

P R E F A C E.

lived about 200 years before Christ, was a most subtle geometer and mechanic. He made engines that drew up the ships of Marcellus at the siege of Syracuse; and others that would cast a stone of a prodigious weight to a great distance, or else several lesser stones, as also darts and arrows; but there have been many fabulous reports concerning these engines. He also made a sphere which shewed the motions of the sun, moon, and planets. And Posidonius afterwards made another which shewed the same thing. In these days the liberal arts flourished, and learning met with proper encouragement, but afterwards they became neglected for a long time. Aristotle, who lived about 290 years before Christ, was one of the first that writ any methodical discourse of Mechanics. But at this time the art was contained in a very little compass, there being scarce any thing more known about it, than the 6 mechanical powers. In this state it continued till the 16th century, and then clockwork was invented, and about 1650 were the first clocks made. At this time several of the most eminent mathematicians began to consider Mechanics. And by their study and industry, have prodigiously enlarged its bounds; and made it a most comprehensive science. It extends through heaven and earth; the whole universe, and every part of it is its subject. Not one particle of matter but what comes under its laws. For what else is there in the visible world but matter and motion; and the properties and affections of both these are the subject of Mechanics.

To the art of Mechanics is owing all sorts of instruments to work with, all engines of war, ships, bridges, mills, curious roofs and arches, stately theaters, columns, pendent galleries, and all other grand works in building. Also clocks, watches, jacks, chariots, carts and carriages, and even the wheelbarrow. Architecture, navigation, husbandry, and military affairs owe their invention and use to this art. And whatever hath artificial motion by air, water, wind or cords; as all manner of mu-

sical instruments, water works, &c. This is a science of such importance, that without it we could hardly eat bread, or lye dry in our beds.

By Mechanics we come to understand the motions of the parts of an animal body; the use of the nerves, muscles, bones, joints, and vessels. All which have been made so plain, as proves an animal body to be nothing but a mechanical engine. But this part of mechanics, called anatomy, is a subject of itself. Upon Mechanics is also founded the motions of all the celestial bodies, their periods, times, and revolutions. Without Mechanics a general cannot go to war, nor besiege a town, or fortify a place. And the meanest artificer must work mechanically or not work at all. So that all persons whatever are indebted to this art, from the king down to the cobbler.

Upon Mechanics is also founded the Newtonian or only true philosophy in the world. For all the difficulty of philosophy consists in this; from some of the principal phenomena of motions, to investigate the forces of nature. And then from these forces to demonstrate the other phenomena; all which is to be done upon mechanical principles. Thus from the distances and revolutions of the heavenly bodies, the forces of gravity are derived; and from these forces thus known, are deduced the motions of the planets, comets, the moon and the sea; as well as the motions of bodies upon the surface of the earth, these relate to the visible bodies of the universe. But there are also certain forces belonging to the small particles of matter, which we are still ignorant of; by which they are either impelled towards one another, and cohere in regular figures; or are repelled and so recede from each other. For the particles of different sorts of bodies have different laws; since the small particles of some bodies attract one another, whilst these of other sorts repel each other; and that by forces almost infinitely various.
Upon

Upon these forces the cohesion, solidity, and fluidity of bodies depend. The nature of elasticity, electricity, and magnetism. Upon these also depend the principles of fermentation, putrefaction, generation, vegetation, and dissolution of bodies; digestion and secretion in animal bodies; the motion of the blood and fluids in animals, and the moving of the members by the command of the will; the exciting sensations in the mind; the emission, reflection, refraction, and inflection of light; freezing by cold, burning by fire; all operations in chemistry, &c. If these forces could be found out, it would open to us a new field in the science of Mechanics. But for want of proper experiments, these forces among the invisible and imperceptible particles of matter, are utterly unknown, and exceeding difficult to be discovered, and therefore make no part of the ensuing treatise. Nor shall I meddle with astronomy, as being a subject of itself: nor with experimental philosophy any further than concerns Mechanics. And although architecture has a great dependance upon Mechanics; yet there are a great many precarious rules in this art, invented purely for ornament, and for the sake of beauty; which have nothing to do with Mechanics. And therefore mechanical beauty (that is strength in due proportion) is all that I have any business to meddle with here.

It has been ignorantly objected by some, that the Newtonian philosophy, like all others before it, will grow old and out of date, and be succeeded by some new system, which will then be as much cried up as this is now. But this objection is very fondly made. For never a philosopher before Newton ever took the method that he did. For whilst their systems are nothing but hypotheses, conceits, fictions, conjectures, and romances, invented at pleasure and without any foundation in the nature of things; he on the contrary, and by himself alone, set out upon a quite different footing. For he admits nothing but what

he gains from experiments, and accurate observations. And from this foundation whatever is further advanced, is deduced by strict mathematical reasoning. And where this thread does not carry him he stops, and proceeds no further; not pretending to be wise above what is written in nature. Being rather content with a little true knowledge, than, by assuming to know every thing, run the hazard of error. Contrary to all this, these seeming philosophers, being men of strong imaginations and weak judgment, will run on *ad infinitum*, and build one fiction upon another, till their Babel thus erected proves to be nothing but a heap of endless confusion and contradiction. And then it is no wonder, if the whole airy fabrick tumbles down and sinks into ruin. And yet it seems such romantic systems of philosophy, will please some people as well as the strictest truth or most regular system. As if philosophy, like religion, was to depend on the fashion of the country, or on the fancies and caprice of weak people. But surely this is nothing but rambling in the dark, and saying that the nature of things depends upon no steady principles at all. But in truth the business of true philosophy is to derive the nature of things from causes truly existent. And to enquire after those laws on which the Creator choosed to found the world; not those by which he might have done the same had he so pleased. It is reasonable to suppose that from several causes something differing from each other, the same effect may arise. But the true cause will always be that from which it truly and actually does arise; the others have no place in true philosophy. And this can be known no way, but by observation and experiments. Hence it evidently follows that the Newtonian philosophy, being thus built upon this solid foundation, must stand firm and unshaken; and being once proved to be true, it must eternally remain true, until the utter subversion of all the laws of nature. It is therefore a mere joke to talk of a new philosophy. The foundation is now firmly laid: The Newtonian philosophy may indeed be improved, and further advanced; but it can
never

never be overbrowed: Notwithstanding the efforts of all the Bernoulli's, the Leibnitz's, the Green's, the Berkley's, the Hutchinson's, &c. And even the French themselves have at last adopted it, and given up the Cartesian scheme.

Practical Mechanics might be very much improved, if the secrets of all trades were to lie open; and the several machines used in each trade, duly explained. And experimental philosophy would be thereby much improved, as well as the trades themselves. And one trade might borrow many great helps in working, from another trade. It is not my design to treat at all on the lowest part of Mechanics, which concerns manual arts or working by hand. For there is no theory required here, but only a habit of working, to be acquired by constant practice.

I have in the following book confined myself entirely to the mathematical part, and what depends on it, and is deduced from it. And therefore I have first of all laid down and demonstrated the general laws of motion, as a foundation for all the rest. Then follows the laws of gravity, the descent of bodies, and motion of projectiles, the Mechanical Powers, the Descent of Bodies upon inclined planes, the Vibration of Pendulums, Centers of Gravity, and others, the Pressure, Strength, and Stress of Beams of Timber; then you have the Principles of Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, and Pneumatics; the resistance of fluids; the Powers of Engines, and the description of Machines. In all these I have delivered all the fundamental principles both in theory and practice. And to make it more universally useful, I have demonstrated every thing geometrically, or at most by the help only of the lowest and easiest rules of algebra, avoiding all operations by fluxions. So that the reader need not be scared with the thoughts of any difficulty of that kind. In the machines I have given an account of their structure, as far as is necessary to explain their motions and effects;

P R E F A C E.

effects; omitting the description of their minuter parts, not so necessary for this end. I hope the reader will pardon my inserting among the rest, some machines that may seem trifling, put in here and there to fill up vacant places in the schemes. Yet even in these there is something curious in their structure or motion, that may be worth observing. I might indeed have added several other things in the theory, though of less importance; and might also have given the cuts of several other machines. But perhaps what I have already done may be thought too much, in such a nation as this, where natural knowledge wants due encouragement; and where no Mæcenas appears to patronize and protect it; and where arts and sciences stand, as it were, in suspense, whether they shall stand or fall; and where public spirit and English generosity are just expiring. This decline of arts and sciences is wholly or in great measure owing to the ambition and most extreme avarice of the present age. Where men, not being able to lift their eyes above this earth, think nothing worth their care but raking together the dross it affords; striving like the toad, who shall die with the most earth in his paws. The duller part of mankind are entirely engaged in the pursuit of filthy lucre; and the brighter sort are wholly devoted to low, trifling, and often barbarous diversions. In such momentous pursuits as these, it is no wonder if arts and sciences flag; and natural knowledge meet with nothing but contempt; and Minerva give place to Pluto. And indeed if the general temper and disposition of men had been the same in all ages, as it is in this; I am in doubt whether we had ever had any such thing as a mill to grind us corn for bread, or a pump to draw us water. It is a trifling excuse for men of exalted station to urge that they are unacquainted with such arts or sciences. For learning has always been esteemed to be under the peculiar care and superintendency of the Great; who ought to protect and encourage both it and the professors of it; or else arts and sciences can never flourish. The industrious
students

P R E F A C E.

xi

students only, have the fatigue; whilst all the world reaps the advantage of their labours.

Scire volunt omnes, mercædem solvere nemo.

JUVEN.

It is reported of Alexander that he allowed 800 talents a year to Aristotle, to defray the expences of procuring all sorts of living creatures; so that by his own particular experience, he might be enabled to write of the nature and properties of them. And the reason why the world bath now so few Aristotles, is because there are no Alexanders.

But as to the fate of this book it is indifferent to me what reception it shall meet with in the world. Not that I am in the least diffident of the principles here delivered; for I know they will stand the strictest examination. Nor would I be thought careless concerning the advantage which my few readers may receive from it: For on the contrary, I have done all I could to instruct them, and lead them regularly through this noble and useful science. But in a mercenary age, where there is so little encouragement for works of this nature, I am under no concern what judgment may be passed upon it by the ignorant multitude. Yet I sincerely wish, that my more ingenious readers may find what they expect here; and am in hopes, that they will meet with no difficulties, but what they will easily surmount. To effect which, I have made every thing in this book, as full and clear, as my own abilities, and the nature of the thing would permit me.

W. EMERSON.

T H E

APPROVED FOR THE SECRETARY OF THE ARMY

UNITED STATES

THE

THE CONTENTS.

DEFINITIONS. p. 1

Postulata. ————— ————— 3

Axioms. ————— ————— 4

SECT. I. *The general laws of motion.* 7

SECT. II. *The laws of gravity, the descent of heavy bodies, and the motion of projectiles.* 27

SECT. III. *The properties of the mechanical powers; the ballance, the leaver, the wheel, the pulley, the screw, and the wedge.* 38

SECT. IV. *The descent of bodies upon inclined planes, and in curve surfaces; and the motion of pendulums.* 56

SECT. V. *The center of gravity and its properties.* 73

SECT. VI. *The centers of percussion, oscillation and gyration.* 93

SECT. VII. *The quantity and direction, of the pressure of beams of timber, by their weight; and the forces necessary to sustain them.* 110

The CONTENTS.

- SECT. VIII.** *The strength of beams of timber in all positions; and their stress by any weights acting upon them, or by any forces applied to them.* p. 117.
- SECT. IX.** *The properties of fluids, the principles of Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, and Pneumatics.* 143
- SECT. X.** *The resistance of fluids, their forces and actions upon bodies; the motion of ships, and position of their sails.* 175
- SECT. XI.** *Methods of communicating, directing, and regulating any motion, in the practice of Mechanics.* 196
- SECT. XII.** *The powers and properties of compound engines; of forces acting within the machine; and concerning friction.* 204
- SECT. XIII.** *The description of compound machines or engines, and the method of computing their powers or forces; with some account of the advantages or disadvantages of their construction.* 225

EXPLA.

EXPLANATION.

OC as, or in proportion to
 perp. perpendicular
 Rad. Radius
 S. Sine
 Cos. Cosine
 Tan. Tangent.
 Cotan. Cotangent
 Sec. Secant.

E R R A T A.

b. signifies reckon from the bottom.

pag.	line	read
5	10 b.	receded
14	2 b.	$1 : 1^2 ::$
16	11 b.	angle
25	at top	Sect. I.
33	1	fig. 7. (in the margin.)
34	4 b.	lines of elevation.
36	11	above the plains.
37	15	$\frac{ssvv}{4fzx} =$
40	13	perpendiculars
41	14	equilibrio.
42	12, 13	as WC, PC, and PW.
57	17	length AC
86	16	that body
	8 b.	places a, b ;
104	9 b.	put out 90 (in the margin)
109	4	of a circle
113	9 b.	at B, C, in
114	13	and S.BCD :
115	5	S.rBC ::

E R R A T A.

pag.	line	read.
125	10	$AC \times \cos. A$
129	11, 12	$\frac{1}{2} W + P$
	13	$\times W + 2 P$, whence $W : W + 2 P$
	15	$eW = P$.
135	1 b.	ADB
153	9	<i>a body will</i>
158	10 b.	$A - \overline{F - E}$
166	2	$SO = \frac{Sg}{SG} \times$
178	2	Fig. 140. (in the margin.)
179	16	acted on by
199	23	reactions BC ,
204	17	weight C ;
211	10 b.	of a machine
234	14 b.	as far below
244	8 b.	as F , G ;
264	7	draws it
267	11 b.	turning a spit.
281	26, 27	put out the parenthesis.
282	9 b.	Cocks i , i .
284	16 b.	and another
290	4	R , R four
292	11 b.	284 (in the margin)
298	9	a machine
307	9 b.	lin-pin of a wheel.
308	17	timber or metal

MECHANICS.

DEFINITIONS.

1. **M** *MECHANICS* is a science, which teaches the proportion of the forces, motions, velocities, and in general the actions of bodies upon one another.

2. *Body* is the mass or quantity of matter. If a body yields to a stroke and recovers its former figure again, it is called an *elastic body*: If not, it is *inelastic*.

3. *Density* of a body is the proportion, of the quantity of matter contained in it, to the quantity of matter in another body of the same bigness. Thus the density is said to be double or triple, when the quantity of matter contained in the same space is double or triple.

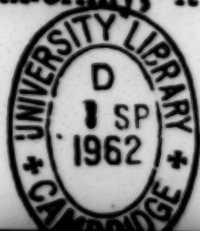
4. *Force* is a power exerted on a body to move it. If it act but for a moment it is called the force of *percussion* or *impulse*. If it act constantly, it is called an *accelerative force*: If constantly and equally, it is called a *uniform accelerative force*.

5. *Velocity* is an affection of motion, by which a body passes over a certain space in a given time. The velocity is said to be greater or lesser, according as the body passes over a greater or lesser space in the same time.

6. *Motion* is a continual and successive change of place. If a body moves through equal spaces in equal times, it is called *equable motion*. If its velocity continually increases, it is called *accelerated motion*; if it decreases, it is *retarded motion*. If it increases or decreases uniformly, it is *equably accelerated* or *retarded*.

B

Likewise



DEFINITIONS.

Likewise if its motion be considered in regard to some other body at rest, it is called *absolute motion*. But if its motion be considered with respect to other bodies also in motion, then it is *relative motion*.

7. *Direction of motion* is the way the body tends, or the right line it moves in.

8. *Quantity of motion*, is the motion a body has, both in regard to its velocity, and quantity of matter. This is called the *momentum* of a body, by some mechanical writers,

9. *Vis inertiae*, is that innate force of matter by which it resists any change, and endeavours to preserve its present state of motion or rest.

10. *Gravity* is that force wherewith a body endeavours to descend towards the center of the earth. This is called *absolute gravity*, when the body tends downward in free space: and *relative gravity* is the force it endeavours to descend with in a fluid.

11. *Specific gravity* of bodies, is the greater or lesser weight of bodies of the same magnitude; or the proportion between these weights. The specific gravity is said to be double or triple, when the weight of the same bulk of matter is double or triple.

12. *Center of gravity* of a body is a certain point in it, upon which the body being freely suspended, it would rest in any position.

13. *Center of motion* of a body, is a fixed point about which the body is moved. And the *axis of motion*, is the fixt axis it moves about.

14. *Weight and power* when opposed to one another signify the body to be moved and the body that moves it. That body which communicates the motion is called the *power*; and that which receives it, the *weight*.

15. *Equilibrium* is when two or more forces acting against one another, none of them overcome the others, but destroy one another's effects, and remain at rest.

16. *A fluid* is a body whose parts yield to any impressed

DEFINITIONS.

3

pressed force; and by yielding are easily moved among themselves.

17. *Hydrostatics* is a science that treats of the properties of fluids.

18. *Hydraulics* is the art of raising or conveying water by the help of engines.

19. *Pneumatics* is a science that treats of the properties of the air.

20. *Machine* is any mechanical instrument contrived to move bodies, or to perform some particular motions. The mechanical powers are simple machines.

21. *Engine* is a mechanic instrument composed of levers, wheels, pulleys, screws, &c. in order to move, lift, or sustain some great weight, or perform some great effect. This is the largest and most compounded sort of machines.

22. *Mechanic powers*, are the ballance, the leaver, the wheel, the pulley, the screw, and the wedge.

23. *Stress* is the effect of a force acting against a beam, or any thing to break it, or the violence it suffers by that force. The contrary to this is *strength*, which is the resistance any beam is able to make against a force endeavouring to break it.

24. *Friction* is the resistance arising from the parts of machines, or of any bodies rubbing against one another.

POSTULATA.

1. **T**HAT a small part of the surface of the earth, or the horizon, may be looked upon as a plane. Though this is not strictly true, yet it differs insensibly in so small a space as we have any occasion to consider it.

2. Heavy bodies descend in lines parallel to one another, and perpendicular to the horizon: And they always tend perpendicular to the horizon by their weight.

P O S T U L A T A.

weight. For this is true as to sense, because the lines of their direction meet only at the center of the earth.

3. The weight of any body is the same in all places at or near the surface of the earth. For the difference is insensible at any heights to which we can ascend. Though in strictness the force of gravity decreases in ascending, in the reciprocal ratio of the squares of the heights from the earth's center.

4. We are to suppose all planes perfectly even and regular, all bodies perfectly smooth and homogeneous: lines perfectly straight, and inflexible; without weight or thickness; cords extremely pliable, &c. For though bodies are defective in all these; and the parts of matter, whereof engines are made, subject to many imperfections; yet we must set aside all these irregularities, till the theory is established; and afterwards make such allowance as is proper.

A X I O M S.

1. **E**VERY body perseveres in its present state, whether of rest, or moving uniformly in a right line; till it is compelled to change that state, by some external force.

2. The alteration of motion, or the motion generated, or destroyed in any body, is proportional to the force applied: And is made in the direction of that right line in which the force acts.

3. The action and re-action between two bodies are equal, and in contrary directions.

4. The motion of the whole body is made up of the sum of the motions of all the parts.

5. The weights of all bodies in the same place, are proportional to the quantities of matter they contain; without any regard to their bulk, figure, or kind. For twice the matter will be twice as heavy, and thrice the matter thrice as heavy; and so on.

6. The

6. The vis inertiae of all bodies, is proportional to to the quantity of matter.

7. Every body will descend to the lowest place it can get to.

8. Whatever sustains a heavy body, bears all the weight of it.

9. Two equal forces acting against one another in contrary directions; destroy one another's effects.

10. If a body is acted on with two forces in contrary directions; it is the same thing as if it were only acted on with the difference of these forces, in direction of the greater.

11. If a body is kept in equilibrio; the contrary forces, in any one line of direction, are equal, and destroy one another.

12. Whatever quantity of motion any force generates in a given time; the same quantity of motion will an equal force destroy in the same time; acting in a contrary direction.

13. Any active force will sooner or more easily overcome a lesser resistance than a greater.

14. If a weight be drawn or pushed by any power; it pushes or draws all points of the line of direction equally. And it is the same thing, whatever point of that line the force is applied to.

15. If two bodies be moving the same way in any right line; their relative motion will be the same, as if one body stood still, and the other approached, or receded from it with the difference of their motions: or with the sum of their motions, if they move contrary ways.

16. If a body is drawn or urged by a rope, the direction of that force is the same as the direction of that part of the rope next adjoining to the body.

17. If any force is applied to move or sustain a body, by means of a rope; all the intermediate parts of the rope are equally distended, and that in contrary directions.

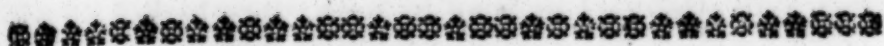
18. If a running rope go freely over several pulleys; all the parts of it are equally stretched.

19. If any forces be applied against one end of a free leaver or beam; the other end will thrust or act with a force, in direction of its length.

20. The parts of a fluid will yield, and recede towards that part where it is least pressed.

21. The upper part of a fluid is sustained by the lower part.





S E C T. I.

The general laws of M O T I O N.

P R O P. I.

The quantities of matter in all bodies are in the complicate ratio of their magnitudes and densities.

FOR by def. 3. if the magnitudes be equal, the matter will be as the densities. And if the densities be equal, the matter will be as the magnitudes. Therefore the matter is universally in the compound ratio of both.

Cor. 1. The quantities of matter in similar bodies, are as the densities and cubes of the diameters. For the magnitude is as the cube of the diameter.

Cor. 2. The quantities of matter are as the magnitudes and specific gravities. For the specific gravities are the densities, by Ax. 5.

P R O P. II.

The quantities of motion, in all moving bodies whatever, are in the complicate ratio of the quantities of matter and the velocities.

For if the velocities are equal, it is manifest (by ax. 4.) that the quantities of motion will be as the quantities of matter. And if the quantities of matter are

B 4

equal,

equal, the motions will be as the velocities. Therefore universally, the quantities of motion are in the compound ratio of the velocities and quantities of matter.

Cor. In any sort of motion, the quantity of motion is as the sum of all the products of every particle of matter multiplied by its respective velocity.

For the quantity of motion of any particle is as that particle multiplied by its velocity: Therefore by composition, the sums of all are in the same ratio.

PROP. III.

In all uniform motions, the space described is in the compound ratio of the time and velocity.

For it is evident, if the velocity be given, the space described by any body, will be as the time of its moving. And if the time be given, the space described will be greater or less, according as the velocity is greater or less; that is, the space will be as the velocity. Therefore if neither be given, the space will be in the compound ratio of both the time and velocity.

Cor. The time is as the space directly and velocity reciprocally.

PROP. IV.

The motion generated by any momentary force, is as the force that generates it.

For if a certain quantity of force generates any motion, a double quantity of force will generate double the motion; and a triple force, triple the motion, and so on.

Cor.

Cor. The space described is as the force and time directly, and quantity of matter reciprocally.

For by this prop. the force is as the motion, that is (by Prop. II.) as the matter and velocity; therefore the velocity is as the force directly and matter reciprocally. Also (by Prop. III.) the space is as the time and velocity, and therefore as the time and force directly, and matter reciprocally.

S C H O L I U M.

Let b = body or quantity of matter to be moved.

f = force of impulse acting on the body b .

m = momentum or quantity of motion generated in b .

v = velocity generated in b .

s = space described by the body b .

t = time of describing the space s with the velocity v .

Then by the three last Props. we shall have $m \propto bv$, $s \propto tv$, and $f \propto m$. By the help of these three general proportions, the relation of the spaces, times, velocities, &c. may be found, upon all suppositions. And thence all the laws and proportions belonging to uniform motion, may be readily and universally resolved: Expunging such as are not concerned in the question; and rejecting all those that are given or constant; and also those that are in both terms of the proportion. Thus we shall get in general,

$$f \propto m \propto bv \propto \frac{bs}{t}$$

$$m \propto f \propto bv \propto \frac{bs}{t}$$

$$s \propto tv \propto \frac{tm}{b} \propto \frac{tf}{b}$$

$$v \propto \frac{m}{b} \propto \frac{s}{t} \propto \frac{f}{b}$$

$$t \propto$$

GENERAL LAWS

$$t \propto \frac{s}{v} \propto \frac{sb}{m} \propto \frac{sb}{f}$$

$$b \propto \frac{m}{v} \propto \frac{f}{v} \propto \frac{mt}{s} \propto \frac{ft}{s} \quad .$$

PROP. V.

In any motion, generated by a uniformly accelerating force : the motion generated in any time, is in the compound ratio of the force and time.

For in any given time, the motion generated will be proportional to the force that generates it, this being its natural and genuine effect. And since in all the several parts of time, the force is the same, and has the same efficacy ; therefore the motion generated will also be as the time : whence universally, the motion generated is in the compound ratio of both the force and the time of acting.

Cor. 1. This prop. is equally true in respect to the motion lost or destroyed in a moving body, by a force acting in a contrary direction. by ax. 12.

Cor. 2. If the space through which a body is moved by any force, be divided into an infinite number of equal parts ; and if, in each part, the accelerative force acts differently upon the body, according to any certain law. And if there be taken the product of the accelerating force in each part multiplied by the time of passing through it. Then I say,

As any uniform accelerative force $\times$ by the time of acting (FT) :

To the motion generated in that time (M) ::

So the sum of all the products of each particular force and time :

To the motion generated in this whole time, by the variable force.

For

For (by this prop.) the time of describing any part $\times$ by the force : motion generated in that time $:: F \times T : M$. therefore by composition, the sum of all the products, to the whole motion generated; is also as $F T$, to M .

Cor. 3. The velocity generated (or destroyed) in any time is as the force and time directly, and the quantity of matter reciprocally.

For by prop. II. the quantity of motion is as the matter and velocity; therefore the velocity is as the motion directly and the matter reciprocally, that is, (by this prop.) as the force and time directly, and the matter reciprocally.

Cor. 4. The increase or decrease of any velocity, generated or destroyed in any time; is as the force and time directly, and the matter reciprocally.

This follows from Cor. 3. because all effects are proportional to their causes.

P R O P. VI.

In any motion generated by a uniform accelerative force; the space described from the beginning of the motion, is in the complicate ratio of the velocity, and the time wherein it is generated.

For suppose the time divided into an infinite number of equal parts, each of which call 1, and let the times from the beginning be 1, 2, 3, 4 to t . And let c be the velocity generated at the end of the time 1; then by Cor. 3. of the last Prop. the velocity generated

GENERAL LAWS

generated in the same body, by the same force, in the times 1, 2, 3, 4 t , will be respectively c , $2c$, $3c$, $4c$. . . to tc . And by Prop. III. the spaces described in each given part of time, will be as the time (1) and the velocity; and therefore these spaces will be c , $2c$, $3c$. . . tc . and the sum of all these is the whole space described by the body. But the sum of the arithmetic progression 0, c , $2c$, $3c$, $4c$. . . tc to t terms is $\frac{0 + tc}{2} \times t$, or $\frac{tc}{2} \times t$. but tc is the last velocity, and t the whole time, therefore the whole space is as ($tc \times t$) the velocity and time conjunctly.

Cor. 1. If a body moves uniformly forward with the velocity acquired by a uniform accelerative force; it will describe twice the space in the same or an equal time, that it described by the accelerative force.

For here the spaces described in the several small parts of time, will be tc , tc , tc . . &c. to t terms. whose sum is $tc \times t$. And the sum of the former spaces, described by the accelerating force, was $\frac{tc}{2} \times t$. but $tc \times t$ is to $\frac{tc}{2} \times t$, as 2 to 1.

Cor. 2. Since any active force is an endeavour of putting a body into motion; therefore the adequate and immediate effect of an accelerating force is either motion or pressure or both.

SCHOL.

Let b = body or quantity of matter.

F = accelerative force acting uniformly and equally on the body b .

v = velocity generated in b by the force F .

m = motion generated in b .

s = space described by b .

t = time of describing the space s .

Then

Then the two last propositions together with Prop. II. will resolve all questions relating to the times, forces, velocities, &c. in uniformly accelerated motions. Thus $m \propto bv$, $m \propto Ft$, and $s \propto tv$. whence we have in general,

$$b \propto \frac{m}{v} \text{ \&c.}$$

$$m \propto bv \propto Ft \text{ \&c.}$$

$$v \propto \frac{s}{t} \propto \frac{Ft}{b} \propto \sqrt{\frac{Fs}{b}} \propto \frac{m}{b}, \text{ \&c.}$$

$$s \propto tv \propto \frac{bv}{F} \propto \frac{Ftt}{b},$$

$$t \propto \frac{s}{v} \propto \frac{bv}{F} \propto \sqrt{\frac{bs}{F}} \propto \frac{m}{F},$$

$$F \propto \frac{bv}{t} \propto \frac{bs}{tt} \propto \frac{bv}{s} \propto \frac{m}{t}, \text{ \&c.}$$

Whence, if m , b , &c. be given; such quantities must be left out.

P R O P. VII.

If any force acting on a body at A in direction AB cause the body to pass through the space AB in any time; and another similar force acting in direction AC , would move it through the space AC in the same time: I say by both forces acting together, in their proper directions, the body will, in the same time; be moved through the space AD , the diagonal of the parallelogram $ABDC$.

C A S E I.

Let the forces at A cause the body to move uniformly along the lines AB , AC . Then since the force acting in direction AC parallel to BD , by ax. 2. will not alter the velocity towards the line BD ; the body therefore will arrive at BD in the same time whether the force in direction AC be impressed or not: Therefore at

FIG. at the end of the time it will be found some wherein BD .

1. By the same argument, it will be found somewhere in the line CD ; therefore it will be found in D the point of intersection; and by ax. 1, it will move in a right line from A to D .

Otherwise.

Suppose the line AC to move parallel to itself into the place BD , whilst A moves from A to C . Then since this line and the body are both equally moved towards BD , it is plain the body must be always in the moveable line AC . Therefore when AC comes to the position bg , let the body be arrived at d ; then since, both the line AC moves uniformly along AB , and the body A along AC ; therefore it will be as $Ab : bd :: AB : BD$, therefore Add is a right line.

CASE II.

Let the body be carried through AB , AC by an accelerative force. Then by Prop. VI. the space described will be as the time and velocity, and therefore the velocity will be as the space directly and time reciprocally. Also by Cor. 3. Prop. V. when the force and the body is given; the velocity is as the time. Whence the time will be as the space directly and time reciprocally, and the space as the square of the time. That is the same body acted on by the same force will describe spaces which are as the squares of the times. Now let the time of describing AB or AC be 1; and let the line AC move along with the body, always parallel to itself, and in the time t , let it arrive at bg , and the body at d , moving towards g . Then, from what has been said, it is as $1 : tt :: AB : Ab$, and also as $1 : tt :: bg$ or $BD : bd$. whence $AB : Ab :: BD : bd$. therefore Add is a right line.

And if you suppose the space to be as the n th power of the time, it will still be, $1 : t^n :: AB : Ab :: BD : bd$; and Add is still a right line for any similar forces.

CASE

CASE III.

But if the body A be carried through AD by a uniform force, in the same time it would be carried through AM by an accelerative force; then by both forces acting together, it will at the end of that time be found in the point H , of the parallelogram $MADH$; but then the line it describes AGH , will not be a right line.

Cor. 1. The forces, in the directions AB, AC, AD , are respectively proportional to the lines AB, AC, AD ; and in these directions.

1.

For by Cor. Prop. IV. the time and the quantity of matter being given; the force is directly as the space described. And in accelerated motion, the same is true, by Pr. V. Cor. 3. and Pr. VI.

Cor. 2. The two oblique forces AB, AC is equivalent to the single direct force AD , which may be compounded of these two, by drawing the diagonal of the parallelogram AD .

Cor. 3. Any single direct force AD , may be resolved into the two oblique forces whose quantities and directions are AB, AC , having the same effect; by describing any parallelogram whose diagonal is AD .

Cor. 4. A body being agitated by two forces at once, will pass through the same point, as it would do if the two forces were to act separately and successively. And if any other motion be impressed on a body already in motion, it does not alter its motion in lines parallel to its former direction.

Cor. 5. If two forces as AB, AC act in the directions AB, AC , respectively; draw AR to the middle of the

2.

FIG. the right line BC , and $2AR$ is the force compounded out of these, and AR its direction.

PROP. VIII.

3. Let there be three forces A, B, C of the same kind, acting against one another, at the point D , and whose directions are all in one plane; and if they keep one another in equilibrio, these forces will be to each other respectively, as the three sides of a triangle drawn parallel to their lines of direction, DI, CI, CD .

Let DC represent the force C , and produce AD, BD , and complete the parallelogram $DICH$: And by the last Prop. the force DC is equivalent to the two forces DH, DI ; put therefore, the forces DH, DI instead of DC , and all the forces will still be in equilibrio. Therefore by ax. 11. DI is equal to its opposite force A , and DH or CI equal to its opposite force B . Therefore the three forces A, B, C are respectively as DI, CI, CD .

Cor. 1. Hence the forces A, B, C , are as the three sides of a triangle, drawn perpendicular to their lines of direction, or in any given angles to them, on the same side. For such a triangle will be similar to the former triangle.

Cor. 2. The three forces A, B, C , will be to each other as the sines of the angles through which their respective lines of direction do pass when produced.

For $DI : CI :: S. DCI$ or $CDB : S. CDI$ or CDA .
And $CI : CD :: S. CDI$ or $CDA : S. CHD$ or HDI or ADB .

Cor. 3. If there be never so many forces acting against any point in one plane, and keep one another in equilibrio; they

they may be all reduced to the action of three, or even of two equal and opposite ones. FIG.

For if HD , ID be two forces, they are equivalent to the single force DC , and in like manner A and B may be reduced to a single force.

Cor. 4. And if ever so many forces in different planes, acting against one point, keep one another in equilibrio; they may be all reduced to the actions of several forces in one plane, and consequently to two equal and opposite ones. 3.

For if the four forces A , B , H , I , act against the point D ; and H , I , be out of the plane ABD : Let DC be the common section of the planes ADB , HDI ; then the forces H , I , are reduced to the force C in the plane ADB .

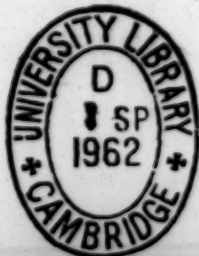
SCHOL.

This Prop. holds true of all forces whatever; whether of impulse or percussio, thrusting, pulling, pressing; or whether instantaneous or continual; provided they be all of the same kind.

Hence if three forces act in one plane, their proportions are had; and if one force be given, the rest may be found. And if four forces act, and two be given, the other two may be found; but if only one be given, the rest cannot be found; for in the three forces A , B , C , the force C may be divided into other two, an infinite number of ways, by drawing any parallelogram $DICH$ about the diagonal DC . And in general if there be any number of forces acting at D , and all be given but two, these two may be found: otherwise not, tho' the positions of them all be given.

C

PROP.



PROP. IX.

If one body acts against another body by any kind of force whatever; it exerts that force in the direction of a line perpendicular to the surface whereon it acts.

4. Let the body B be acted on by the force AB in the direction AB . Let the body C and the obstacle O , hinder the body B from moving; divide the force AB into the two forces AD , AE ; or EB , DB , by Cor. 3. Prop. VII. the one perpendicular, the other parallel to the surface DB . then the surface DB receives the perpendicular force EB , and the obstacle O the parallel force DB ; take away the obstacle O , and the force DB will move the body B in a direction parallel to the surface, with no other effect than what arises from the friction of B against that surface, occasioned by the pressure of B against it by the force EB ; which, if the surface be perfectly smooth and void of tenacity, will be nothing. The force DB therefore having no effect, the remaining force EB will be the only one, whereby the body B acts against the surface DB , and that in direction EB perpendicular to it.

Cor. 1. *If a given body B strike another body C obliquely, at any angle ABD , the magnitude of the stroke will be directly as the velocity and the sine of the angle of incidence ABD ; and the body C receives that stroke in the direction EB perpendicular to the surface DB .*

For if the angle ABD be given; the stroke will be greater in proportion to the velocity; and if the velocity AB be given, the stroke will be as AD , or $S. \angle ABD$. Or the magnitude of the stroke is as the velocity wherewith the body approaches the plane.

5. Cor. 2. *If a perfectly elastic body A impinges on a hard or elastic body CB at B , it will be reflected from it,*
so

Sect. I. OF MOTION.

19

So that the angle of reflexion will be equal to the angle of incidence. FIG.

For the motion at B parallel to the surface is not at all changed by the stroke. And because the bodies are elastic they recover their figure in the same time they lose it by the stroke; therefore the velocity in direction BE is the same after as before the stroke; Let AE , BE represent the velocities before the stroke, and ED ($= AE$) and BE the respective velocities after the stroke; then in the two similar and equal triangles AEB , BED , $\angle ABE$ is equal to EBD .

5.

But since no bodies in nature are perfectly elastic, they are something longer of regaining their figure; and therefore the angle DBF will be something more acute than the $\angle ABG$.

Cor. 3. If one given body impinges upon another given body; the magnitude of the stroke will be as the relative velocity between the bodies.

4.

For the magnitude of the stroke is as the line BE , or the velocity wherewith the bodies approach each other; that is, as the relative velocity.

Cor. 4. And in any bodies whatever, if a body in motion strike against another, the magnitude of the stroke will be as the motion lost by the striking body.

For the motion impressed on the body that receives the stroke is equal to the magnitude of the stroke. And the same motion by Ax. 3. is equal to the motion lost in the striking body.

Cor. 5. A non-elastic body striking another non-elastic body, only loses half as much motion as if the bodies were perfectly elastic.

FIG.

For the non-elastic bodies only stop; but elastic bodies recede with the same velocity they meet with.

Cor. 6. Hence also it follows, that if one body acts upon another, by striking, pressing, &c. the other re-acts upon this in the direction of a line perpendicular to the surface whereon they act. By Ax. 3.

S C H O L.

Though the momentum or quantity of motion in a moving body is a quite distinct thing from the force that generates it; yet when it strikes another body and puts it into motion, it may with respect to that other body, be considered as a certain quantity of force proportional to the motion it generates in the other body.

Also altho' the motion generated by the impulse of another body is considered as generated in an instant, upon account of the very small time it is performed in; yet in mathematical strictness it is absolutely impossible that any motion can be generated in an instant, by impulse or any sort of finite force whatever. For when we consider that the parts of the body which yield to the stroke, are forced into a new position; there will be required some time for the yielding parts to be moved through a certain space into this new position. Now during this time, the two bodies are acting upon each other with a certain accelerative force, which in that time generates that motion which is the effect of their mutual impulse. So that it is plain that this is an effect produced in time; and the lesser the time the greater the force; and if the time be infinitely small, the force ought to be infinitely great, which is impossible. But by reason that this effect is produced in so small a time as to be utterly imperceptible, so that it cannot be brought to any calculation; upon this account the time is entirely set aside,

aside, and the whole effect imputed to the force only, which is therefore supposed to act but for a moment.

FIG.

The quantity of motion in bodies has been proved to be as the velocity and quantity of matter. But the momentum or quantity of motion may be the same in different bodies, and yet may have very different effects upon other bodies, on which they impinge. For if a small body with a great velocity impinge upon another body; and if, by reason of its great velocity, it act more strongly upon the small part of the body upon which it impinges, than the force of cohesion of the parts of that body; then the part acted on, will, by this vigorous action, be separated from the rest; whilst by reason of the very small time of acting, little or no motion is communicated to the rest of the body. But if a great body with a small velocity strike another body; and if by reason of its slow motion it does not act so vigorously as to exceed the force of cohesion; the part struck will communicate the motion to the rest of the body, and the whole body will be moved together. Thus if a bullet be shot out of a gun, the momentum of the bullet and piece are equal; but the bullet will shoot through a board, and the gun will only jump a little against him that discharges it. Therefore small bodies with great velocity, are more proper to tear in pieces: And great bodies with small velocity, to shake or move the whole.

P R O P. X.

The sum of the motions of any two bodies in any one line of direction, towards the same part, cannot be changed by any action of the bodies upon each other; whatever forces these actions are caused by, or the bodies exert among themselves.

FIG.

Here I esteem progressive motions, or motions towards the same part, affirmative; and regressive ones, negative.

CASE I.

Let two bodies move the same way, and strike one another directly. Now since action and re-action (by Ax. 3) are equal and contrary, and this action and re-action is the very force by which the new motions are generated in the bodies; therefore (by Ax. 2.) there will be produced equal changes towards contrary parts. And therefore whatever quantity of motion is gained by the preceding body will be lost by the following one; and consequently, their sum is the same as before.

And if the bodies do not strike each other but are supposed to act any other way as by pressure, attraction, repulsion, &c. yet still since action and re-action are equal and contrary; there will be induced an equal change in the motion of the bodies, and in contrary directions; so that the sum of the motions will still remain the same.

CASE II.

Suppose the bodies to strike each other obliquely; then since (by the last Prop.) they act upon each other in a direction perpendicular to the surface in which they strike; the action and re-action in that direction being equal and contrary; the sum of the motions, the same way, in that line of direction, must remain the same as before. And since the bodies do not act upon each other in a direction parallel to the striking surface; therefore there is induced no change of motion in that direction. And therefore universally the sum of the motions will remain the same considered in any one line of direction whatever. And if the
bodies

bodies act upon one another by any other forces whatever; still (by Ax. 2. and 3.) the changes of motion will be equal and contrary, and their sum the same as before.

FIG.

Cor. 1. The sum of the motions of any system or number of bodies, in any one line of direction, taken the same way, remains always the same; whatever forces these bodies exert upon each other: esteeming contrary motions to be negative. And therefore,

Cor. 2. The sum of the motions of all the bodies in the world, estimated in one and the same line of direction, and always the same way; is eternally and invariably the same: esteeming these motions affirmative which are progressive, or directed the same way; and the regressive motions negative. And therefore in this sense motion can neither be increased nor diminished. But

Cor 3. If you reckon the motions in all directions to be affirmative, then the quantity of motion may be increased or decreased an infinite number of ways. As suppose two equal non-elastic bodies, to meet one another with equal velocities; they will both stop and lose all their motions.

For let M be the motion of each, then before meeting the sum of their motions is $M+M$; and after their meeting, it is 0. But in the sense of this Prop. $M-M$ is the sum of the motions before they meet, because they move contrary ways, which is 0; and it is the same after they meet. And thus a man may put several bodies into motion with his hands, which had no motion before; and that in as many several directions as he will.

PROP. XI.

The motions of bodies included in a given space, are the same among themselves; whether that space is at rest, or moves uniformly forward in a right line.

For if a body be moving, in any right line; and there be any force equally impressed, both upon the body and the right line in any direction. And in consequence of this, they both move uniformly with the same velocity; now as there is no force to carry the body out of that line, it must still continue in it as before; and as there is no force to alter the motion of the body in the right line; it will (by Ax. 1.) still continue to move in it as before. For the same reason, the motions of any number of bodies moving in several directions, will still continue the same; and their motions among themselves will be the same, whether that space be at rest, or move uniformly forward.

Likewise, since the relative velocities of bodies, (that is, the difference of the real velocities the same way, or their sum, different ways) remain the same, whether that space be at rest, or it and the bodies move uniformly forward all together. Therefore their mutual impulses, collisions, and actions upon one another, being (by Cor. 3. Pr. IX.) as the relative velocities; must (by Ax. 3.) remain the same in both cases,

SCHOL.

Before I end this section, it may not be amiss to mention a certain kind of force, called by the foreigners, *vis viva*. This they term a *faculty of acting*; and distinguish it from the *vis mortua*, which with them signifies only a solicitation to motion, such as pressure, gravity, &c. concerning this *vis viva* they talk so obscurely, that it is hard to know what they mean by it,

it. But they measure its quantity by the number of springs which a moving body can bend to the same degree of tension, or break; whether it be a longer or a shorter time in bending them. So that the *vis viva* is the total effect of a body in motion; acting till its motion be all spent. And according to this, they find, that the force, (or *vis viva*) to overcome any number of springs; will always be as the body multiply'd by the square of the velocity.

Suppose any number of equal and similar springs placed at equal distances in a right line; and a body be moved in the same right line against these springs; then the number of springs which that body will break before it stop, will be as the square of its velocity: whatever be the law of the resistance of any spring in the several parts of its tension. For from the foregoing Props. it appears, that the swifter the body moves, so much the less time has any spring to act against it to destroy its motion. And therefore the motion lost by one spring will be as the time of its acting; and by several springs as the whole time of their acting; and consequently the resistance is uniform. And since the resistance is uniform, the velocity lost will be as the time, that is, as the space directly and velocity reciprocally; whence the space and therefore the number of springs is as the square of the velocity. And upon this account they measure the force of a body in motion, by the square of the velocity. So at last the *vis viva* seems to be the total space passed over, by a body meeting with a given resistance; which space is always as the square of the velocity. And this comes to the same thing as the force and time together, in the common mechanics.

Now it seems to be a necessary property of the *vis viva*, that the resistance is uniform. But there are infinite cases where this does not happen; and in such cases, this law of the *vis viva* must fail. And since it fails in so many cases, and is so obscure in itself; it ought to be weeded out, and not to pass for a principle in mechanics.

Likewise

FIG.

Likewise if bodies in motion impinge on one another, the conservation of the *vis viva* can only take place when the bodies are perfectly elastic. But as there are no bodies to be found in nature which are so; this law will never hold good in the motion of bodies after impulse; but in this respect it must eternally fail.

This notion of the *vis viva* was first introduced by *M. Leibnitz*, who believed that every particle of matter was endued with a living soul.



S E C T.



S E C T. II.

The laws of gravity, the descent of heavy bodies, and the motion of projectiles.

P R O P. XII.

The same quantity of force is requisite to keep a body in any uniform motion, directly upwards, as is required to keep it suspended, or at rest.

And if a body descends uniformly, the same force that is sufficient to hinder its acceleration in descending, is equal to the weight of it.

For the force of gravity will act equally on the body in any state, whether of motion or rest. Therefore if a body is projected directly upwards or downwards with any degree of velocity; it would for ever retain its velocity, if it were not for the force of gravity that draws it down, (by Ax. 1.) If therefore a force equal to its gravity were applied directly upwards; then (by Ax. 9.) these two forces destroy each other's effects; and it is the same thing as if the body was acted on by no force at all. And therefore (by Ax. 1.) it would retain its uniform motion,

Cor. But if a body be moved upwards with an accelerated motion; the force to cause that motion will be greater than its weight; and that in proportion to its acceleration (by Ax. 10.).

P R O P.

FIG.

P R O P. XIII.

The velocities of falling bodies are as the times of their falling from rest.

For by postulate 3. the body is uniformly acted on by gravity, which is its accelerating force downwards; therefore by Cor. 3. Prop. V. the velocity is as the force and time directly and the matter reciprocally. But (by Ax. 5.) the force of gravity is as the quantity of matter; and consequently, the velocity will be as the time.

Cor. 1. All bodies falling by their own weight, gain equal velocities in equal times.

Cor. 2. Whatever velocity a falling body gains in any time; if it be thrown directly upwards, it will lose as much in an equal time: (by Ax. 12.) And therefore

Cor. 3. If a body be projected upwards with the velocity it acquired by falling in any time; it will in the same time lose all its motion. Hence also

Cor. 4. Bodies thrown upwards lose equal velocities in equal times.

P R O P. XIV.

The spaces described by falling bodies are as the squares of the times of their falling from rest.

For by postul. 3. gravity is a uniformly accelerating force; therefore by Prop. VI. the space described is as the time and velocity. But by the last Prop. the time is as the velocity; and therefore the space described is as the square of the time.

Cor.

Cor. 1. The spaces described by falling bodies are also as the squares of the velocities; or the velocity is as the square root of the height fallen.

Cor. 2. Taking any equal parts of time; then the spaces described by a falling body, in each successive part of time, will be as the odd numbers 1, 3, 5, 7, 9, 11, &c.

For in the times 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. the spaces described will be as their squares 1, 4, 9, 16, &c. And therefore in the differences of the times or in these equal parts of time; the spaces described will be as the differences of the squares, or as 1, 3, 5, 7, &c.

Cor. 3. A body moving with the velocity acquired by falling through any space, will describe twice that space in the time of its fall. By Cor. 1. Pr. 6.

Cor. 4. If a body be projected upwards with the velocity it acquired in falling; it will, in the same time, ascend to the same height it fell from; and describe equal spaces in equal times, both in rising and falling; but in an inverse order; and will have the same velocity at every point of the line described.

For by Cor. 2. of the last Prop. equal velocities will be gained or lost in equal times, (reckoning from the last moment of the descent). Therefore, since at the several correspondent points of time, the velocities will be equal; the spaces described in any given time will be equal, and the wholes equal.

Cor. 5. If bodies be projected upwards with any velocities; the heights of their ascent will be as the squares of the velocities, or as the squares of the times of their ascending.

For in descending bodies the spaces descended are as the

FIG. the squares of the last velocities, by Cor. 1. and by Cor. 4. the spaces ascended will be equal to those descended.

Cor. 6. *If a body is projected upwards with any velocity; with the same velocity undiminished, it would describe twice the space of its whole ascent, in the same time. By Cor. 3. and 4.*

Cor. 7. *Hence also all bodies at the surface of the earth descend equal spaces in equal times.*

SCHOL.

It is known by experiments that a heavy body falls $16 \frac{1}{2}$ feet in a second of time, and requires a velocity which will carry it over $32 \frac{1}{2}$ feet in a second; which being known, the spaces described in any other times, and the velocities acquired will be known by the foregoing propositions; and the contrary. These propositions are exactly true, where there is no resistance to hinder the motion; but because bodies are a little resisted by the air, descending bodies will be a little longer in falling; and a body projected upwards, will be something longer in descending than in ascending, and falls with a less velocity; and consequently a body projected upwards with the velocity it falls with, will not ascend quite to the same height; but these errors are so small, that in most cases they may safely be neglected.

If the force by which a body is accelerated in falling was directly as the height fallen from; it may be computed (by Cor. 2. Pr. V.) that the velocity acquired will also be as the height; or the space described directly as the velocity. And therefore if bodies were projected upwards they would in this case ascend to heights, which are as the velocities with which they are projected. This being compared with Cor. 5. of the last Prop. it is easy to conclude that
bodies

SECT. II. LAWS OF GRAVITY.

31

FIG.

bodies projected upwards, and acted upon by a force which is neither of a given quantity, nor in proportion to the distance of the body from the top of the ascent, but between them; that these bodies will then ascend to heights which are between the simple and duplicate ratio of the velocities.

And as these propositions lead us to the knowledge of the relation between the velocities and spaces described, from the forces being given. So vice versa, from that relation being given, the forces may be known. Whence if bodies are projected with any velocities into a resisting medium, and the spaces described within that body, measured; the constitution of that body, and the law of its resistance will be found.

PROP. XV.

If a body be projected either parallel to the horizon, or in any oblique direction; it will, by its motion, describe a parabola.

Let AD be the direction of the motion, AFG the curve described; and let $AB, BC, CD, \&c.$ be all equal; draw $AM, BF, CG, DH, \&c.$ perpendicular to the horizon; and compleat the parallelograms, $AF, AG, AH, \&c.$ then by Ax. 1. if the body were without gravity, it would move on in the line AD ; and describe the lines $AB, BC, CD, \&c.$ in equal times. Now since gravity acts in lines perpendicular to the horizon, it does not affect the motion in direction AD ; but generates a motion in direction AM . So that the body instead of being at $B, C, D, \&c.$ will at the same points of time be at $F, G, H, \&c.$ But in the time of describing AB, AC, AD , the body by the force of gravity will descend through the spaces BF, CG, DH ; which are as the squares of the times they are

6, 7

FIG. 6, 7. are described in (by Pr. 14.) that is as the squares of the lines AB , AC , AD . But AB , AC , AD are equal to KF , LG , MH ; and BF , CG , DH , equal to AK , AL , AM . Therefore the parts of the axis of the curve AK , AL , AM , &c. are respectively as the squares of the ordinates KF^2 , LG^2 , MH^2 , &c. And therefore, by the conic sections, the curve AFG is a parabola.

7. *Cor. 1. The line of direction AD is a tangent to the curve in A . And the latus rectum to the point A is $\frac{KF^2}{AK}$ or $\frac{AB^2}{BF}$. And in the oblique projection, the principal latus rectum is $\frac{AO^2}{BF}$, supposing AOP perpendicular to AM , and G the vortex. For then $\frac{AO^2}{BF} = \frac{AP^2}{CG=GP}$.*

Cor. 2. If the horizontal velocities of projectiles be the same, whatever their elevations be; they will describe the same parabola.

For if AB be the velocity and direction of a projectile, then AO is the horizontal velocity. When the body comes to the vertex G , its motion is then parallel to the horizon, which parallel motion remains the same as before, that is equal to AO . Therefore it describes the same parabola, as a body projected from G with velocity AO parallel to the horizon.

Cor. 3. The velocity of a projectile in any point of the curve, is as the secant of the angle of its direction above the horizon.

For AO the horizontal velocity is the same at all points of the curve; and the velocity AB at A , in the curve, is the secant of the angle of elevation OAB .

Cor.

Cor. 4. The velocity, at any point of the curve is the same that is acquired by falling through $\frac{1}{2}$ the latus rectum belonging to that point: Or (which is the same) through $\frac{1}{2}$ the principal latus rectum + the abscissa to that point.

For let IA be the space fallen through to acquire the velocity in any point as A ; then the space AD described in the same time with that velocity in direction AV , will be $2AI$ (by Cor. 3. Pr. 14.) but in the same time, by the same force of gravity, the body will descend through an equal space DH , therefore AD or $MH = 2DH$ or $2AM$; but the latus rectum $= \frac{MH^2}{AM} = \frac{4AM^2}{AM}$ or $4AM$. therefore AM or $AI = \frac{1}{4}$ the latus rectum.

PROP. XVI.

The horizontal distances of projections, made with any velocities, and at any elevations, are as the sines of the doubled angles of elevation, and the squares of the velocities.

Let v = velocity of the projectile measured by the space it passes through in time 1.

f = descent of a body by gravity in the same time.

$x = AE$ the horizontal distance, or amplitude.

$s = \text{sine}$
 $t = \text{cofine}$ } of the elevation, VAE .

$A = \text{sine}$
 $B = \text{vers. sine}$ } of twice the elevation.

Then by trigonometry, $2sc = A$, and $2ss = B$, when the radius is 1. And in the right angled triangle AEV .

D

c:

Cor.

FIG.

7.

$$c : x :: (\text{rad.}) 1 : \frac{x}{c} = AV, \text{ and}$$

$$c : x :: s : \frac{sx}{c} = VE.$$

and by Prop. III.

$$v : (\text{time}) 1 :: (AV) \frac{x}{c} : \frac{x}{cv} = \text{time of describing } AV.$$

And by Prop. XIV.

$$f : (\text{time}) 1 :: \frac{sx}{c} (VE) : \frac{sx}{cf} = \text{square of the time of describing } VE. \text{ Now the times of describing } AV, VE, \text{ and } AGE \text{ are all equal. Whence } \frac{sx}{cf} = \frac{xx}{vvc}.$$

$$\text{therefore } x = \frac{vusc}{f} = \frac{vva}{2f}. \text{ And therefore } x \text{ or } AE \text{ is as } vva.$$

Cor. 1. Hence, the altitudes of projections are as the squares of the sines of elevation, and the squares of the velocities; or as the versed sines of the doubled angles of elevation, and the squares of the velocities.

$$\text{For if } G \text{ be the vertex, } GP = \frac{1}{2} CP = \frac{1}{2} VE. \text{ And } VE = \frac{sx}{c} = \frac{vuss}{f}. \text{ therefore } GP = \frac{vuss}{4f} = \frac{vvB}{8f}. \text{ therefore } GP \text{ is as } vuss \text{ or as } vvB.$$

Cor. 2. The times of flight of projectiles, are as the velocities, and the sines of elevations.

$$\text{For the time} = \frac{x}{cv} = \frac{vs}{f}.$$

Cor. 3. The greatest random or horizontal projection, is at the elevation of 45 degrees. And the horizontal distances

Sect. II. PROJECTILES.

35

distances are equal, at elevations equally distant above and below 45° . FIG.

SCHOLIUM.

Let b be the height of the perpendicular projection with the velocity v ; then will $b = \frac{vv}{4f}$. whence

$$\text{Horizontal distance} = \frac{vvsc}{f} = \frac{vvA}{2f} = 4scb = 2Ab.$$

$$\text{Altitude of the projection} = \frac{vvss}{4f} = \frac{vvB}{8f} = ssb = \frac{1}{2}Bb.$$

$$\text{Time of flight} = \frac{vs}{f} = 2s\sqrt{\frac{b}{f}}.$$

PROP. XVII.

The distances of projections made on any inclined planes, are in the complicate ratio of the fines of the angles which the lines of direction make with the plane and zenith; and the squares of the velocities, directly; and the cosines square of the plane's elevations reciprocally.

Let AE be the inclined plane, AV the direction of the projectile, SA , CP , VE perpendicular to the horizon; AGE the path of the projectile. And let

8.

v = velocity of the projectile in A , measured by the space it describes in the time 1.

f = space described by a descending body in the same time.

s = sine of VAE ,

c = sine of VAS .

z = sine of SAE .

x = AE the oblique distance, or random.

Then by plain trigonometry,

$$c : x (AE) :: z : AV = \frac{xz}{c}, \text{ and}$$

FIG.
8.

$$c : x :: s : VE = \frac{sx}{c}.$$

And by Prop. III.

Space v : time 1 :: $(AV) \frac{xz}{c} : \frac{xz}{cv}$ = time of describing AV . And by Prop. XIV,

Space f : time 1 :: $(VE) \frac{sx}{c} : \frac{sx}{fc}$ = square of the time of descending through VE .

But the times of describing AV , VE being equal, we have $\frac{sx}{fc} = \frac{xxzz}{ccvv}$, or $\frac{s}{f} = \frac{xzz}{cvv}$; whence $x =$

$$\frac{scvv}{fzz}, \text{ and } f \text{ being a given quantity, } x \text{ or } AE \text{ is as } \frac{scvv}{zz}.$$

Cor. 1. The heights above the plane are as the squares of the velocities, the squares of the sines of elevation above the plane, directly; and the squares of the cosines of the planes elevations, reciprocally.

For if $AP = PE$, then G is the vertex of the parabola, in respect of the plane AE . And $GP = \frac{1}{4} VE =$

$$\frac{sx}{4c} = \frac{ssvv}{4fzz}.$$

Cor. 2. The times of flight are as the velocities and sines of elevation above the plane; and the cosines of the planes elevations reciprocally.

$$\text{For the time is } = \frac{zx}{cv} = \frac{sv}{fz}.$$

Cor. 3 Hence also the altitude is as the square of the time of flight.

For

Sect. II. PROJECTILES.

37

For the altitude is as $\frac{ssvv}{zz}$, and the time as $\frac{sv}{z}$.

FIG.
8.

Cor. 4. The greatest projection upon an inclined plane, is when the line of direction bissects the angle between the plane and zenith. And the projections are equal at elevations equally distant from this line, above and below.

For upon the same plane, AE is as sc , and sc is greatest when $s=c$. And at equal distances above and below sc is the same.

Cor. 5. This Prop. holds true whether the projections be made up or down the planes.

SCHOL.

Let b = height of the perpendicular projection as before, then $b = \frac{vv}{4f}$. whence

$$\text{Length of the projection} = \frac{scvv}{fzz} = \frac{4scb}{zz}$$

$$\text{Height of the projection} = \frac{ssvv}{4fzz} = \frac{sb}{zz}$$

$$\text{Time of flight} = \frac{sv}{fz} = \frac{2s}{z} \sqrt{\frac{b}{f}}$$

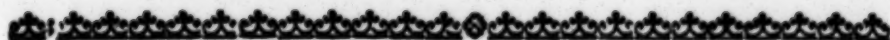
And if $d=AE$ the length of the projection, then $\frac{scvv}{fzz} = d$, whence $v=z \sqrt{\frac{df}{sc}}$. And supposing the ut-

most random of one of our greatest guns to be 5864 paces; then $v=194$ paces = 324 yards, so that a ball shot out of her moves at the rate of 324 yards in a second. Also it may be noted, that by reason of a greater resistance of the air, the upper ranges, scarce go so far as the under ranges. And the greatest random upon a horizontal plane is at something less elevation than 45 degrees.

D 3

SECT.

FIG.



S E C T. III.

*The Properties of the mechanical powers ;
the ballance, the leaver, the wheel, the
pulley, the screw, and the wedge.*

P R O P. XVIII.

9. *If at the ends of a ballance AB , which are equally distant from the center of motion C , two equal weights be suspended ; they will be in equilibrio.*

Here AB that represents the ballance is supposed to be a right line, in which are the three points A, B, C . Now the weights A, B cannot act upon one another any otherwise than by means of the ballance AB whose fixt point is C .

Suppose then that any force applied at A puts the body A into motion, and by means of the ballance the body B ; then since the brachia or ends of the beam CA and CB are equal ; the arches Aa, Bb , described by these bodies will be equal. Consequently the velocities and quantities of matter of A, B , being equal, their momenta or motions will be equal. And, because ACB is a right line, they move in a contrary direction ; and therefore by Ax. 9. these bodies cannot of themselves raise one the other, but must remain in equilibrio.

Cor. Hence equal forces A, B applied at equal distances from the center of motion C , will have the same effect in turning the ballance.

P R O P.

MECHANICAL POWERS.

39

FIG.

PROP. XIX.

10.

19.

20.

12.

In any straight lever, if the power P be to the weight W , as the distance of the weight from the fulcrum C , to the distance of the power from the fulcrum; the power and weight (acting perpendicularly on the lever) will be in equilibrio.

A lever is any inflexible beam, staff, or bar, whether of metal or wood, &c. that can any way be applied to move bodies. There are four kinds of levers;

1. A lever of the first kind is that where the fulcrum is between the weight and the power (fig. 10.)
2. A lever of the second kind is where the weight is between the fulcrum and the power, (fig. 19.)
3. The lever of the third kind is where the power P is between the weight and the fulcrum, (fig. 20.)
4. The fourth kind is the bended lever, (fig. 12.)

CASE I.

In the lever of the first kind WCP , instead of the power P apply a weight P to act at the end CP . And let the lever WCP be moved into the position aCb . Then will the arches Wa , Pb be as the radii, CW , CP ; that is as the velocities of the weight and power. Whence since $P : W :: CW : CP$, therefore $P : W ::$ velocity of W : velocity of P : therefore $P \times$ velocity of $P = W \times$ velocity of W , consequently the momenta or motions of P and W are equal. And since they act in contrary directions, therefore by Ax. 9, neither of them can move the other, but they will remain in equilibrio.

10.

CASE II.

The levers of the 2d and 3d kind may be reduced to the 1st, thus: make $Cp = CP$, and instead of the
D 4 power

19.

20.

MECHANICAL POWERS.

FIG. power P . apply a weight equal to it at p . then by
 19. case 1, the weight W and power p will keep one ano-
 20. ther in equilibrio; and (by Cor. Pr. 18.) the weight
 p and power P will have the same effect in turning
 the leaver, therefore the power P and weight W will
 be in equilibrio.

10. Cor. 1. In any sort of leaver whether streight or bended,
 11. and whether moveable about a single point C ; or an ax-
 12. is AB ; or whether the leaver be fixed to the axis and
 13. both together moveable about two centers A , B , or what-
 14. ever form the leavers have; If AB be a right line,
 15. and from the ends P , W , there be drawn lines to the
 16. center C , or perpendicular to the Axis AB ; and if the power
 and weight act perpendicular to these lines, and be always
 reciprocally as these distances drawn to the center C or axis
 AB ; then they will be in equilibrio.

17. Cor. 2. In any sort of a leaver WCP , and in what-
 18. ever directions the power and weight act on it; if their
 quantities be reciprocally as the perpendiculars on their
 several directions, let fall from the center of motion; they
 will be in equilibrio.

For the power and weight will be in equilibrio if
 they be supposed to act at E and D ; and by Ax. 14,
 it is the same thing whether they act at E and D or at
 P and W .

Cor. 3. Hence universally, if any force be applied to
 a leaver; its effect in moving the leaver will be as that
 force multiplied by the distance of its line of direction
 from the center of motion.

Cor. 4. If two bodies be in equilibrio on the leaver,
 each weight is reciprocally as its distance from the center.

Cor. 5. In the streight leaver when the weight and
 power are in equilibrio, and act perpendicularly on the
 leaver

Sect. III. MECHANIC POWERS.

41

lever or in parallel directions; then of these three the power, weight, and pressure upon the fulcrum, any one of them is as the distance of the other two.

FIG.

For if CP represent the weight W , then CW will represent the power P . and in fig. 10. C sustains both the weights, and therefore the pressure is WP ; and fig. 19, 20. C sustains the difference of the weights, and therefore the pressure will be WP .

10.

19.

20.

P R O P. XX.

If several weights be suspended on a streight lever AB ; and if the sum of the products of each weight multiplied by its distance from the center of motion C , on one side be equal to the sum of the products on the other side; then they will be in equilibrio, and the contrary.

21.

For the force of each weight to move the lever is as the weight multiplied by the distance (by Cor. 3. last Prop.); and the sum of the products is as the whole forces; which if they be equal, the forces on both sides are equal, and the lever remains at rest.

P R O P. XXI.

If a bended lever WCP be kept in equilibrio by two powers, acting in the directions PB , WA perpendicular to the ends of the lever CP , CW ; and if the lines of direction be produced till they meet in A , and AC drawn, and CB parallel to WA . I say the power P the weight or power W , and the force acting against the fulcrum C , will be respectively as AB , BC , AC ; and in these very directions.

22.

Draw CB , CF parallel to WA , PA ; then the angle $WFC = WAP = CBP$, and the right angled triangles WCF and BCP are similar; whence $CF : CB :: CW : CP$

FIG. 22. $CP ::$ (by Cor. 2. Pr. 19.) power P : power W . Now since (by Ax. 14.) it is the same thing to what points of the lines of direction PB, WF , the forces P, W be applied; let us suppose them both to act at the point of intersection A ; then since the point A is acted on by two forces, which are as CF and CB , or as AB and AF ; and both these are equivalent to the single force AC (by Cor. 2. Pr. 7.) therefore the fulcrum C is acted on by the force AC , and in that direction, by Ax. 11.

Cor. 1. Hence the power P , the weight W , and the pressure the fulcrum C sustains; are respectively as WC , PC , and PW , that is any one, is as the distance of the other two.

For since the angles at P, W are right; CA is the diameter of a circle passing through the points A, P, C, W ; therefore the angle $WPC = WAC = ACB$, and the angle $CWP = CAP$; therefore the triangles ABC, WCP are similar; and $AB : BC :: WC : CP$, and $BC : AC :: CP : PW$. therefore &c.

Cor. 2. In any lever WCP , the lines of direction of the powers WP, WF , and of the pressure on the fulcrum C ; all tend to one point A .

For if not; the lever would not remain in equilibrium.

P R O P. XXII.

23. If AB, CD be two levers moveable about A , and C ; and some force acts upon the end B of the lever AB , in direction BF ; whilst the lever AB acts upon CD at B . If BE be drawn perpendicular to CB , and AE parallel to BF : And if these levers keep one another in equilibrio. Then I say, the force in direction BF , force against

SECT. III. MECHANIC POWERS.

43

against DC in direction EB , and the pressure against the center A ; are respectively as AE , BE , AB .

FIG.

23.

For since (by Prop. 9.) the lever AB acts upon BC at B in the direction EB perpendicular to BC ; and the lever CD reacts in direction BE ; and (by Ax. 19.) the point A is acted on in direction BA . therefore the point B is acted on with three forces; BF the force applied at B , and BE the reaction of the lever CD , and AB the reaction of the center A ; and AE is parallel to BF ; therefore (by Prop. 8.) these forces are as AE , BE , and AB .

Cor. If two forces BF , BE acting perpendicular to the levers AB , DC , keep these levers in equilibrio: The force BE , force BF , pressure at A , are respectively as radius, $\text{Cof. } ABD$, and $S. ADB$.

For then ABE is a right angled triangle; and these forces are as BE , AE , and AB ; that is, as radius, $S. ABE$, and $S. AEB$; that is, as radius, $\text{cof. } ABD$, and $S. ABD$.

P R O P. XXIII.

If AB , BC be two levers moveable about the centers A and C ; and if the circles KBM and DBE be described with the radii BC , BA ; and upon the circle BM as a base, with the generating circle DBE , the epicycloid BNE be described; and the lever CB and epicycloid BNE be joined together in that very position so as to make but one continued lever $CBNE$. And if these levers $CBNE$, and AB move about the centers C , A ; so that the end D of the lever AD be always in the curve of the epicycloid DK ; I say that two equal and contrary forces at D and K , acting perpendicular to the radii DA , KC , will always keep these levers in equilibrio.

24.

For

FIG.

24.

For let the leavers AB , $CBNE$ come into the position AD , $CKDF$; then since the epicycloid KD is described by the point D , whilst the arch DB rolled upon the equal arch BK ; therefore the end D of the radius AD hath moved thro' an arch BD equal to the arch BK , thro' which K has moved. Therefore the points D , K have equal velocities in any correspondent places D , K . Therefore equal weights H , I , applied to the circles DB and BMG will have equal quantities of motion; and will therefore keep each other in equilibrio, by Ax. 9.

Cor. 1. Hence if one leaver AD move uniformly about the center A , the other CKD will also move uniformly about its center C . And the arch BD described by D will be equal to the arch BK described by K .

Cor. 2. It is the same thing whether the leaver AB act against the convex or concave side of the leaver CKD , provided the end D be always in the curve KD .

25. Cor. 3. After a like manner if BE be an epicycloid described within the circle BRM , by the generating circle BD . And the leaver CBE be compounded of the right line CB and the epicycloid BE ; then the leavers CBE and AB , by equal forces acting at B , will keep one another in equilibrio in any position, as CKF and AD .

For when AB is come to AD , and CBE to $CKDF$; then the arch $BK = \text{arch } BD$. Whence the weights or forces acting at the distances CB , AB , have equal velocities; and therefore will sustain one another.

26. Cor. 4. If BC be infinite, or (which is the same thing) if BK be a right line perpendicular to AB ; then BE or KDF will be the vulgar cycloid. Therefore whilst the point D moves uniformly about the center A , the point K will move uniformly along the right line BK , and with equal velocities and forces: The point D in
the

SECT. III. MECHANIC POWERS.

45

the mean time acting upon the cycloidal tooth KD. And FIG.
any equal opposite forces will sustain one another.

In like manner if BA be infinite, or BD a right line perpendicular to BC ; then BE or DK will be an epicycloid generated by the tangent DB revolving on the circle BK . And the velocities of K in the right line BK , and of D in the right line BD , will be always equal: And equal forces will be sustained at B , in all positions of the lever CKD . 27.

Cor. 5. If the figure of the tooth ef , at the end of the lever AB be given; and the epicycloid BE be described as before. And if the levers AB , CB be made to revolve about their centers A , C ; so that the point B always move in the epicycloid BE or KD . And if the tract of the extreme points of the tooth be marked out upon the plane of the cycloidal tooth, as at $f g g g g e$, or at $f n n n n e$. And if the part $f g D d K f$ be cut away, if the tooth be to act on the concave side of the epicycloid; or $f n e D d K f$, if on the convex side. Then if the levers revolve so that the tooth move along the curve $g g$ or $n n$; the points D and K of the levers AB , CD , will move with equal velocities, in the arches BD BK , as before. 28.

For the fixt point B in the tooth will still describe the epicycloid.

Cor. 6. If the two epicycloids BE , BO be described upon BM , BL with the generating circles BD , BK ; and the levers AB , CB revolve about the centers A , C ; so that the point B or D of the lever AB move along the epicycloid BE or KDS . Then the point B or K , of the lever CB , will at the same time move along the epicycloid BO or DKT ; and the points D , K will describe the equal arches BD , BK . And therefore it is the same thing on which lever the cycloidal tooth be placed, or whether on one or both.

For

- FIG. 29. For the epicycloid DKT generated on DB , will pass through K , if $BD=BK$. Also the epicycloid KDS , generated upon KB , will pass through D , when $BK=BD$.

S C H O L.

24. The leavers AB , CB are supposed only to act upon
 25. one another, below the line AC ; for was the action supposed to be continued above the line AC , the point B would no longer act on the same, but on a different epicycloid; and the Equality of motion would hold no longer.

P R O P. XXIV.

30. *In the wheel and axel, if the power P be to the weight W , as the diameter of the axel EF where the weight acts to the diameter of the wheel AB , where the power acts; then the power and weight will be in equilibrio, and the contrary.*

For let AB be the wheel, CD the axel; and suppose the wheel and axel to turn once round; then it is plain the power P will have descended a space equal to the circumference of the wheel; and the weight W will have risen a height equal to the circumference of the axis. Therefore velocity of P , to velocity of W :: as circumference of the wheel, to circumference of the axis :: or as diameter of the wheel, to diameter of the axis :: that is (by supposition) as W , to P . Therefore the motions of P and W are equal; and have equal forces to move each other, and therefore (by Ax. 9.) will remain in equilibrio.

This prop. will appear otherwise. For the wheel and axel may be reduced to a lever of the first kind. For the fulcrum will be in the middle of the axis CD . therefore drawing lines from the middle of the axis to the
 the

Sect. III. MECHANIC POWERS.

47.

the power and weight, parallel to the horizon; and the radius of the wheel will be the distance of the power, and the radius of the axel the distance of the weight. And as these radii are reciprocally as the weight and power, therefore (by Prop. 19.) they will be in equilibrio. And thus the wheel and axel is no more but a perpetual leaver.

FIG.
30.

Cor. 1. If the rope have any sensible thickness; then if the power P : weight W :: diameter of the axel + the diameter of the rope : diameter of the wheel where the power acts; they will be in equilibrio.

For the weight really hangs half the thickness of the rope, beyond the axel.

Cor. 2. If the direction of the power is not a tangent to the wheel; suppose it to act at D or d , and let CA , be perpendicular to the line of direction; then if $P : W :: CB : CA$, then they will be in equilibrio, by Cor. 2. Pr. 19.

31.

Cor. 3. If the wheel and axel, one or both have teeth; then if the power P acting on the teeth at B , be to the weight W acting on the teeth at A ; as the diameter of the axel at A , to the diameter of the wheel at B , then the wheel is in equilibrio.

32.

Cor. 4. And it is the same thing if instead of a wheel there be only spokes fixt in the axis, whose length is equal to the radius of the wheel: and any other equal force be applied for a power instead of the weight P .

Cor. 5. The force of the weight is increased when one or more spires of the rope is folded about the axel. For that in effect, augments the diameter of the axel.

Cor. 6. It matters not how low the weight hangs. For whilst the axel remains the same, the resistance of the weight

FIG. weight remains the same, setting aside the weight of the
32. rope.

P R O P. XXV.

33. *Let NBD, MBK be two toothed wheels in the same plane; and if the teeth of the wheel BM be the epicycloids BE, kd, KD, described on the base KBM, with the generating circle BN, and these teeth all equidistant; and if B, d, D the ends of the teeth of the wheel NBD be also equidistant, and these distances Bd, dD equal to Bk, kK. Then I say the points of the teeth B, d, D will all act together, on the cycloidal teeth BE, kd, KD, as the wheels turn round. And any points D, K, will move through equal arches BD, BK in equal times.*

Draw the radii AD , Ad , and CK , Ck ; then AD and CKD may be considered as two leavers moving about A , C , and acting on one another in D : And the same of Ad , Ckd , acting at d . But by the motion of the wheels BD , BK , suppose D always to be in the epicycloid KD ; then (Cor. 1. Pr. 23) will $BD=BK$, and since $Dd=Kk$, therefore Bd will be $= Bk$, and consequently (by Cor. 1. Pr. 23.), the point d will be in the epicycloid kd . And thus if there be never so many teeth B , d , D , &c. they will always be in the curves of the epicycloids BE , kd , KD , &c. therefore the working teeth either act all at once upon one another, or they act not all. And as the velocities of any points are equal in the two wheels BD , BK when only one tooth acts upon one; they will still be equal, if never so many act together.

Cor. 1. Hence any equal weights or forces applied to the circumferences of these two wheels, as at B , and acting one against the other, will keep these wheels in equilibrio. Likewise it is the same thing whether the wheel AB drive the wheel CB , its teeth acting upon the concave side of the cycloids; or the wheel CB drive AB ,
the

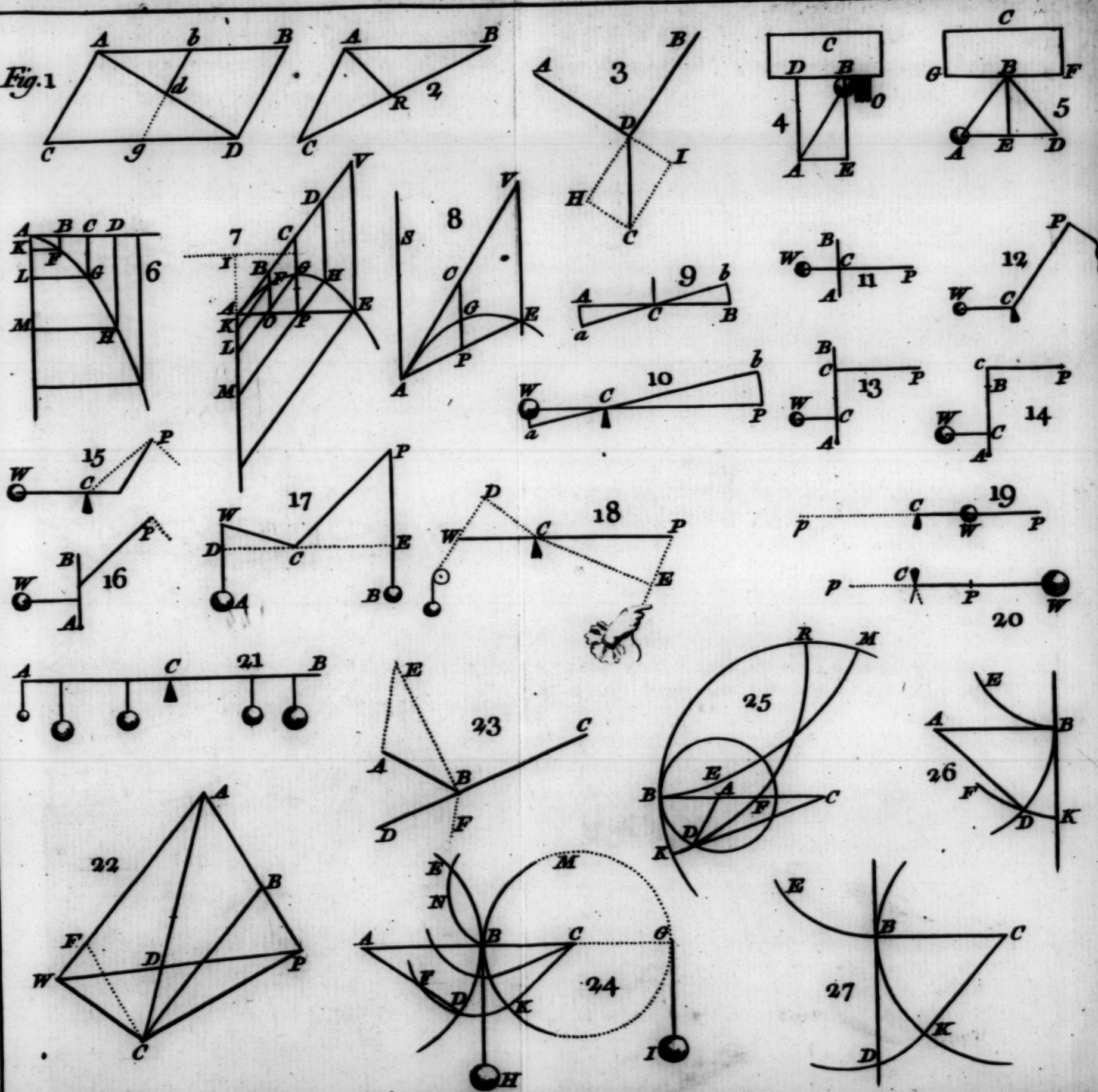
of the

plane;
BE,
aerat-
if B,
e also
Bk,
will
KD,
will
es.

O and
about
same
of the
picy-
, and
con-
be in
o ma-
n the
efore
ano-
ies of
when
equal,

lied to
, and
eels in
er the
on the
e AB,
the

Fig. 1



Se
ib
A

sm
ed
ib
w
ed
an
ta
ib
ru
of
w
th
cl

B
ib
te
cy
w
cy
m
te
to

A
B
m
w
av
of
te
ba
fu

SECT. III. MECHANIC POWERS.

49

the convex side of the cycloid acting against the teeth of AB.

FIG.

33.

Cor. 2. Hence, instead of the points B or the infinitely small teeth of the wheel ABD; if any sort of tooth be placed at B; and if the wheels be made to move about so that the given point B may describe the epicycloid BE or KD, whilst the tract of the extreme points of the tooth is marked out as KeD, KfD; and the space KeDf be cut away; and the same be done for all the other teeth, being equidistant and of the same form and bigness. Then if one of these wheels is supposed to drive the other, by these teeth running in the spaces DfKe; I say the circumferences of these wheels will move with equal velocities, and all the working teeth will act together. This is evident because the points B, D will by this motion describe the epicycloids as before.

34.

Cor. 3. If the epicycloid BV be described on the base BK, with the generating circle BD; and a portion of the epicycloid be placed at equal distances B, L, K, for teeth; then the teeth of the wheel A acting against the cycloidal teeth will make the motion equal in the two wheels. Where we may take as great a portion of the cycloid as we will; and the sides BO, Lf which act not, may be of any figure, not to hinder the motion of the teeth of A. And it is the same thing what part of the tooth LO, the tooth G acts against.

35.

Cor. 4. But the teeth ought not to act above the line AC, which joins their centers. And though the side BO of the tooth may be of any form, yet it is better to make them both sides alike, which will serve to make the wheels turn backwards. Also a part as pqr may be cut away on the back of every tooth, to make way for those of A. And the more teeth that work together, the better; at least one tooth should always begin before the other hath done working. The teeth ought to be disposed in such manner as not to trouble or hinder one another, be-

E

fore

FIG. *fore they begin to work; and that there be a convenient length, depth, and thickeness given them, that they may more easily disengage themselves; as well as for strength.*

P R O P. XXVI.

36. *In a combination of wheels with teeth; if the power P be to the weight W ; as the product of the diameters of all the axels, to the product of the diameters of all the wheels, they will be in equilibrio.*

For by Prop. XXIV,

The power P acting at A : force on B :: diam. B : diam. A , and force on B or C : Force on D :: diam. D : diam. C , and force on D or E : weight W at F :: diam. F : diam. E .

therefore ex equo,

Power P : weight W :: product of the diameters B, D, F : to the product of the diameters A, C, E .

38. *Cor. 1. In a combination of wheels going by cords; if the power P be to the weight W ; as the product of all the diameters of the axels B, D, F , to the product of all the diameters of the wheels A, C , they will be in equilibrio.*

For the cords supply the place of teeth.

36. *Cor. 2. In any combination of wheels with teeth; if the power P be to the weight W ; as the diameter of the axel F where the weight acts, multiplied into the product of the teeth in each pinion or spindle; is to the diameter of the wheel A , where the power acts, multiplied by the product of the teeth in each of the wheels (that the pinions act against); the weight and power will be in equilibrio.*

For

SECT. III. MECHANIC POWERS.

51

FIG.

36.

For the number of teeth in each wheel and pinion that act against one another, are as the circumferences or as the diameters of that wheel and pinion.

Cor. 3. And hence also, if the power be to the weight, in a ratio compounded of the diameter of the axel F, where the weight acts, to the diameter of the wheel A where the power acts, and the ratio of the number of teeth in the first wheel (E) to the number of teeth in the second axis (D), and to the number of teeth in the second wheel (C), and to the number in the third axis (B); and so on till the last; then they will be in equilibrio.

Cor. 4. In a combination of wheels, the number of revolutions of the first wheel F, to the number of revolutions of the last wheel A in the same time; is as the product of the teeth in the pinions, to the product of the teeth in the wheels which act in them: or as the product of the diameters of the pinions, to the product of the diameters of the wheels.

SCHOL.

In wheels whose teeth work together, they should not encounter before they come to the line joining their centers; because the rubbing is greater on that side; but being past the line, the teeth slip easily along one another, in making their escape, so that the friction is very inconsiderable.

PROP. XXVII.

If a power sustain a weight by means of a rope going over a fixt pulley; then the power is equal to the weight. But if the pulley be moveable together with the weight, and the other end of the rope fixed, then the power will be half the weight.

39.

40.

E 2

For

FIG.

39.

40.

For suppose a horizontal line AB drawn through the center of the pulley C , then that line will represent a lever, and (in fig. 39.) where the pulley is fixt, the center C being kept immoveable represents the fulcrum; whilst the weight acts at B , and the power at A . and because $BC=CA$, therefore (by Prop. 19.) the power P is equal to the weight W .

And (in fig. 40.) the fixt point B is the fulcrum, and the weight acts at C , and the power at A ; and since BC is half AB ; therefore (by Prop. 19.) the power P is half the weight W .

41.

Cor. Hence all fixt pullies are equivalent to leavers of the first kind. And they add no new force to the power, but only serve to change the direction, and facilitate the motion of the rope: But a moveable pulley doubles the force. And if a rope go over several pullies, A, B, C , whose blocks are all fixt; the power is neither increased nor diminished.

P R O P. XXVIII.

42.

In a combination of pullies all drawn by one running rope; If the power P be to the weight W ; as 1 to the number of parts of the rope at the moveable block A ; they will be in equilibrio.

For (by Ax. 18.) all the parts of the rope m, o, n, r, s, t, v , are equally stretched, and the weight W is sustained by the number of ropes that act against the moveable block; and the rope v or the power P acts with the force of one. Therefore the power is to the weight; as 1 to the number of ropes pulling at the moveable block A .

Cor. Hence the power is to the force by which the immoveable

SECT. III. MECHANIC POWERS.

moveable block B is drawn; as 1 to the number of ropes acting against that immoveable block.

53
FIG.
42.

P R O P. XXIX.

In the screw, if the power P be to the weight W ; as the height of one thread (reckoned according to the length of the screw) to the circumference described by one revolution of the power; then they will be in equilibrio.

37.

For the weight W rises the height of one thread, whilst the power describes the circumference whose radius is PC . Therefore the velocities of the power and weight are reciprocally as their quantities. Therefore their motions are equal, and they are in equilibrio.

Cor. 1. In the endless or perpetual screw AB , whose teeth take the teeth of the wheel CD . If you take the distance of two threads in the screw AB , according to the length of the axis AB ; or the distance of two teeth in the wheel CD , in direction of the circumference. And if a weight W act at the circumference of the wheel CD . then if the power P , be to the weight W ; as that distance (of the teeth or threads) to the length described by the power P in one revolution; then they are in equilibrio.

43.

For in one revolution of P , the wheel DC with the weight W has moved the distance of one tooth.

Cor. 2. And by reason of the obliquity of the teeth, the force acting perpendicular to the teeth, the lateral force perpendicular to the wheel, and the direct force in the plane of the wheel; will be respectively, as radius, the sine and cosine of the obliquity of the teeth.

E 3

For

FIG.

44.

For let GD be the side of a tooth acted on; GE parallel to the axis of the wheel, and DE perpendicular to it, or in the plane of the wheel. Now if GD represent the force acting perpendicular to the tooth. Then DE , GE will be the forces acting in the directions GE , DE , (by Cor. 1. Pr. 8.) but if GD be radius, DE is the sine of the obliquity and GE the cosine.

Cor. 3. The lesser the distances of the threads, and the longer the handle is; the easier any given weight is moved.

Cor. 4. What is here demonstrated will hold equally true, if the wheel CD act upon another wheel with oblique teeth, instead of the worm AB .

S C H O L.

The force of the screw resembles the force that drives a body up an inclined plane; the force acting parallel to the base of the plane.

P R O P. XXX.

45. Let EFG be the base of a wedge in form of an isosceles triangle; then if the power acting perpendicular to the base FG , is to the force acting against either side in direction perpendicular to that side; as the base of the wedge FG , to either of the sides EF , EG : then the wedge is in equilibrio.

For draw the axis ED perpendicular to the base FG ; and CA , CB , perpendicular to the sides EF , EG . Then DC is the direction of the power. And (by Prop. 9.) the impediment to be removed, acts against the wedge in the directions AC , BC ; and therefore (by Cor. 1. Pr. 8.) the power, and the actions of the impediment

a-
ar
e-
h.
c-
a-
o-

be
d.

lly
ue

at
g

les
be
li-
be
be

G;
en
o.)
he
by
n-
nt

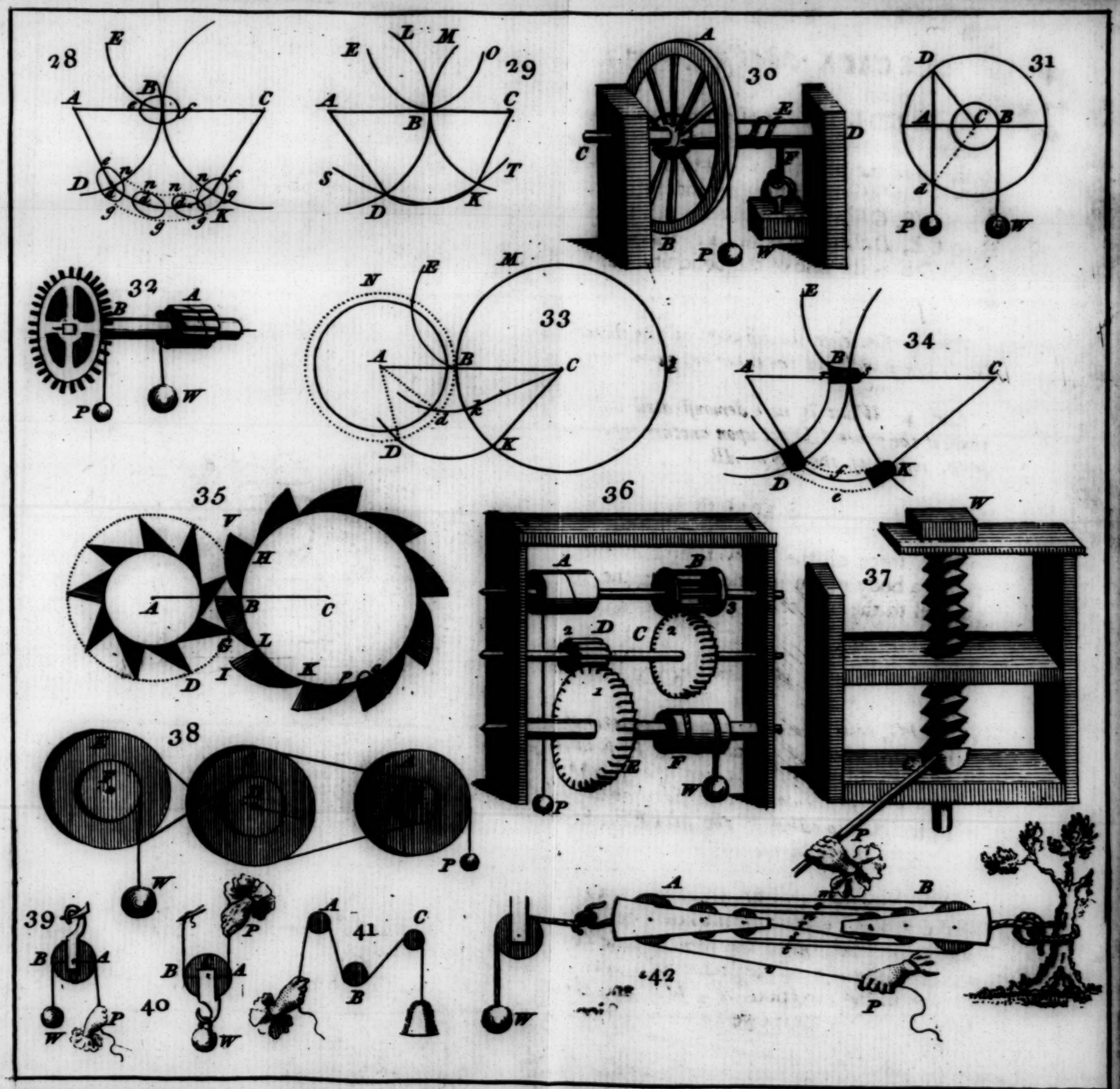
GE pa-
ndicular
GD re-
the tooth.
the direc-
D be ra-
the co-

and the
is moved.
equally
obliqua

ce that
acting

isofocles
to the
in di-
of the
in the

FG;
Then
p. 9.)
the
(by
the im-
ment



MECHANICAL POWERS.

55

pediment, are as FG , FE , EG respectively, when they are in equilibrio. FIG. 45.

Cor. 1. The power acting perpendicular to the base, is to the force acting against either side, in direction parallel to the base FG , or perpendicular to the axis DE ; as the base FG , to the height ED : when the wedge is in equilibrio.

For the force EG may be divided into the two ED , DG (by Cor. 3. Pr. 7.) Then since (by this Prop.) EG is the force acting in direction CB ; ED will be the force acting in direction DG .

Cor. 2. The sharper the wedge, or the more acute its angle, the easier it will divide any thing or overcome any resistance.



S E C T.

FIG.



S E C T. IV.

The descent of Bodies upon inclined Planes, and in curve surfaces; and the motion of pendulums.

P R O P. XXXI.

46. *If a heavy body W, be sustained upon an incline plane AC, by a power acting in a direction parallel to that plane. Then*

<i>The weight of the body,</i>	}	<i>The length AC,</i>
<i>The power that sustains it,</i>		<i>The height CB,</i>
<i>And its pressure against the plane, are respectively, as</i>		<i>And the base AB, of the plane.</i>

Draw BD perpendicular to AC ; then the force of gravity tends perpendicular to the horizon, or parallel to CB ; and the direction of the power is parallel to DC ; and the pressure against the plane is (by Pr. 9.) parallel to DB . And therefore their quantities are respectively as the three lines CB , CD , BD , (by Prop. 8.); that is, by similar triangles, as AC , CB , and AB .

Cor. 1. The weight, power, and pressure, are respectively, as radius, the sine, and cosine of the plane's elevation.

For the sines are as the sines of the opposite angles.

T O T

Cor.

Cor. 2. The relative weight of a body, to make it run down an inclined plane, is as the height directly, and length reciprocally, $\frac{BC}{AC}$; or it is as the sine of the plane's elevation.

Cor. 3. If a cylinder be sustained upon an inclined plane, by a power drawing one end of a rope parallel to the plane, whilst the other end is fixt. This power is to the weight of the cylinder; as half the height, to the length of the plane.

47.

For half the relative weight of the cylinder is sustained by the other end of the rope which is fixt.

P R O P. XXXII.

If a heavy body *W* be sustained upon an inclined plane *AC*, by a power acting parallel to the horizon. Then,

46.

The weight of the body,	{	The base <i>AB</i> ,
The power that sustains it,		The height <i>CB</i> ,
The pressure against the plane,		And the length <i>AC</i> ,
are respectively as		of the plane.

For the body is sustained by three forces, the power, the gravity, and reaction of the plane. The weight is perpendicular to *AB*, the power is perpendicular to *CB*, and the pressure is perpendicular to *AC*. Therefore (by Cor. 1. Pr. 8.) these forces are as *AB*, *CB*, *AC*.

Cor. Hence the pressure on the the plane, the power and the weight; are respectively, as radius, the sine and cosine of the plane's elevation.

P R O P.

58
FIG.
48.
49.

DESCENT OF BODIES

PROP. XXXIII.

If a heavy body W be sustained upon an inclined plane AC , by a power P acting in any given direction WP . And if BD be let fall perpendicular on WP . Then

Power P ,	} DB,	
Weight of the body W ,		AB,
Pressure upon the plane,		AD.
will be respectively, as		

For since BD is perpendicular to the direction of the power, AB to the direction of gravity, and AD to the direction of the pressure on the plane. Therefore (by Cor. 1. Pr. 8.) these forces will be respectively as BD , AB , AD ; when they are in equilibrio.

Cor. 1. The power, weight, and pressure against the plane; are respectively as the sine of the plane's elevation, cosine of the angle of traction CWP , and the cosine of the direction of the power above the horizon.

The angle of traction is the angle that the direction of the power makes with the plane. And in the triangle ABD , the sides are as the sines of the opposite angles, where $\angle D =$ complement of DWP .

Cor. 2. Hence whether the line of direction of the power be elevated above, or below the plane; if the angles of traction be equal; equal powers will sustain the weight. But the pressure is greater when the line of direction runs below the plane.

Cor 3. The power P is least when the line of direction is parallel to the plane, And infinite when perpendicular to it. And equal to the weight, when perpendicular to the horizon.

Cor.

Cor. 4. If a weight upon an inclined plane be in equilibrio with another hanging freely; their perpendicular velocities will be reciprocally as their quantities.

For let the weight at W be made to descend to A , and draw Wr perpendicular to AE , and Wt Dv to AB : then the weight P will have ascended a height $= Ar$, which is its perpendicular ascent; and Wt is the perpendicular descent of W . The figures $Arwt$ and $AEDv$ are similar, as also the triangles AEB , DvB . Whence $Wt : Ar :: Dv : AE :: DB : AB ::$ (by this Prop.) $P : W$.

Cor. 5. And therefore if any two bodies be in equilibrio upon two inclined planes; their perpendicular velocities will be reciprocally as their quantities of matter.

P R O P. XXXIV.

The space which a body (descending from rest) describes upon an inclined plane, is to the space which a body falling perpendicularly, describes in the same time; as the height of the plane CB , to its length AC .

51.

The force wherewith a body endeavours to descend upon an inclined plane is equal to the power that sustains it; and (by Pr. 31.) that power is to the weight of the body as CB to CA . Therefore the body is urged upon the plane, by an uniformly accelerating force which is to the force of gravity as CB to CA . But (by Pr. 5.) the motion generated in the same time, and in the same body is as the force, that is (since the body is given) the velocity is as the force. And (by Prop. 3.) the spaces uniformly described with the last velocities will be as these velocities; and (by Cor. 1. Pr. 6.) these spaces are double the spaces described by the accelerating forces.

FIG. 51. forces. Therefore the spaces described on the plane and in the perpendicular, are as the last velocities, or as the forces, that is as CB to CA .

Cor. 1. Hence if BD be let fall perpendicular to AC ; then in the time a body falls thro' the height CB ; another body, descending along the inclined plane, will run through the space CD .

For these spaces are as CA to CB , that is, as CB to CD , by similar triangles.

Cor. 2. The velocity acquired upon an inclined plane, is to the velocity acquired in the same time by falling perpendicularly; as CB to CA , or as CD to CB .

Cor. 3. The space described by a body falling down any plane in a given time, is as the sine of the plane's elevation.

For if CB be given, CD is as the sine of CBD or CAB .

Cor. 4. The spaces described by a body descending on any given plane, are as the squares of the times.

P R O P. XXXV.

The time of a body's descending through the plane CD , is to the time of falling through the perpendicular height CE ; as the length of the plane DC , to the height CE .

For DE , AB being perpendicular to CB , and BD to AC . The time of descending through CD or the perpendicular CB : time of descending thro' CE :: (by Pr. 14.) $\sqrt{CB} : \sqrt{CE} :: CD : CE$.

Cor. If the body be made to move back again with the velocity

Sect. IV. UPON INCLINED PLANES.

61

velocity acquired in descending, it will ascend to the same height on the plane, and in the same time.

FIG.
51.

For it will be uniformly retarded in ascending; and in all points will have the same velocity in ascending as descending.

SCHOL.

Since the force by which bodies descend down an inclined plane, is a uniformly accelerative force; therefore whatever is demonstrated of falling bodies in Sect. II. holds equally true, in regard to the motion of bodies upon an inclined plane; substituting the relative weight upon the plane, instead of the absolute weight of the body.

Hence therefore a body projected on an inclined plane, will describe a parabola. And if the velocity of projection upon the plane, be to the velocity of a projectile in the air; as the relative gravity on the plane, to the absolute gravity. And both projected at the same obliquity; the same parabola will be described in both cases,

PROP. XXXVI.

A body acquires the same velocity in descending down an inclined plane CD, as by falling perpendicularly thro' the height of that plane CE.

For draw DB perpendicular to CD, and the bodies will descend through CD, CB in the same time; then (by Cor. 2. Pr. 34.) velocity in D : velocity in B :: CE : CD, and (Cor. 1. Pr. 14.) velocity in B : velocity in E :: $\sqrt{CB} : \sqrt{CE} :: CD : CE$. Therefore velocity in D : velocity in E :: CE : CE, and therefore the velocities in D and E are equal.

Cor.

FIG.

61.

Cor. 1. *A body acquires the same velocity in falling from any height, whether it falls perpendicularly, or down an inclined plane of equal height.*

Cor. 2. *Hence the velocities acquired by heavy bodies falling from the same height to the same horizontal right line, on any planes whatever, are equal among themselves.*

Cor. 3. *If the velocities be equal at any two equal altitudes D, E; they will be equal at any other two equal altitudes A, B: And acquire equal increases of velocity, in passing thro' EB, DA of equal heights.*

Cor. 4. *The velocities acquired by descending down any planes whatever, are as the square roots of the heights.*

P R O P. XXXVII.

52.

In a circle whose diameter CB is perpendicular to the horizon, a body will descend through any cord CD or DB in the same time as it will descend perpendicularly through the diameter CB.

For the angle at D is right, therefore (by Cor. 1. Pr. 34.) the time of descending through CD will be equal to the time of descending perpendicularly thro' CB. Draw CE parallel to DB, then will CE be equal to DB; and a body will descend through the cords CE, DB in the same time. But the time of descending through CE is the same as falling through the diameter. Therefore the time of descending through any cord CD, DB, is the same as falling through the diameter CB.

Cor. 1. *The times of descending through all the cords of a circle, drawn from either point C or B, are equal among themselves.*

Cor.

Sect. IV. UPON INCLINED PLANES.

63

FIG.

52.

Cor. 2. The velocity acquired by descending through any cord CD, or DB, is as the length of the cord.

For draw DF perpendicular to CB ; then $CD = \sqrt{CB \times CF}$ and $BD = \sqrt{CB \times BF}$; and (by Pr. 36.) a body acquires the same velocity in descending thro' CD , as in falling through CF , but this (by Cor. 1. Pr. 14.) is as $\sqrt{CF}$, that is as CD . Also a body acquires the same velocity through DB as FB , and that is as $\sqrt{BF}$ or as DB .

Cor. 3. But a body will descend sooner through the small arch of a circle, than through its cord TB.

For if BG , TG be two tangents; then the relative gravity at T in the arch and cord will (by Cor. 1. Pr. 31.) be as the fines of the angles TGO , TBO , or as BT , and TG or BG , that is nearly as 2 to 1 when the arch is very small. And the accelerative force in the circle being double to that in the cord; therefore the velocity will be greater in the arch, and the time of description shorter; though their lengths are nearly the same.

PROP. XXXVIII.

If a body descends freely along any curve surface, and another body descends from the same height in a perpendicular right line; their velocities will be equal at all equal altitudes.

53.

Let a body descend from A towards C perpendicular to the horizon BC ; and another descend through the curve surface AKB . Divide AC into an infinite number of equal parts, at the points D , E , F , &c. to which draw lines parallel to BC , intersecting the curve

FIG. 53. curve in $I, K, G, \&c.$ then the curve line AKB will be divided into an infinite number of parts, $IK, KG, \&c.$ which may be taken for right lines; or the curve surface into an infinite number of planes, joining at $I, K, G, \&c.$

Now if the velocities be supposed to be equal in any correspondent points as I and D ; then (by Cor. 3. Pr. 36.) they will be equal in K and E , after the descent through IK ; and being equal in K and E , they will also be equal in G and F , after the descent thro' KG , and so on. Therefore since the motion begins in A , they will acquire equal velocities in descending through the first plane, and likewise through the 2d, 3d, 4th, $\&c.$ and therefore the velocities will be equal in all correspondent points I and D , K and E , G and F , $\&c.$ and at B and C .

Cor. 1. *Therefore if a body be suspended by a string, and by oscillating describes any curve AB ; or if it is any way forced to move in any polished, and perfectly smooth surface AB ; whilst another body ascends or descends in a right line. Then if their velocities be equal at any one equal altitude; they will be equal at all other equal altitudes.*

For the same thing is effected by the string of the pendulous body, as by the smooth surface of a polished body.

Cor. 2. *Hence a body oscillating in any curve line whatever, acquires the same velocity in the curve; as if it had fallen perpendicularly from the same height. And therefore the velocity in any point of the curve, is as the square root of the height descended.*

Cor. 3. *And a body after its descent through any curve, will ascend to the same height in a similar and equal curve, or even in any curve whatever. And the velocities will be equal*

Sect. IV. IN CURVE SURFACES.

65

equal at all equal altitudes. And the ascent and descent will be in the same time, if the curves are the same.

FIG.

54.

For the forces that generated the motion in descending will equally destroy it in ascending, and therefore they will lose equal velocities by ascending equal heights. And if the curves are similar and equal, every particle of the curve will be described with the same velocity, and therefore in the same time, whether ascending or descending.

Cor. 4. This Prop. is equally true, whether the curve *AKB* be in one plane perpendicular to the horizon, or in several planes *IK*, *KG*, &c. winding about in nature of a spiral.

P R O P. XXXIX.

The times of descent through two similar parts of similar curves; are in the subduplicate ratio of their lengths, *ab*, *AB*.

Divide both curves into an equal number of infinitely small parts, similar to each other; and let *bc*, *BC*, be two of them, similarly posited. And draw *rb*, *RB* perpendicular to *ab*, *AH*. By Prop. III. the space described is as the time and velocity, and the time of describing any space, is as the space directly and velocity reciprocally. By Cor. 2. Pr. 38, the velocities in *b* and *B* are as $\sqrt{rb}$ and $\sqrt{RB}$, that is because *arb*, *ARB* are similar, as $\sqrt{ab}$ and $\sqrt{AB}$. therefore the time of describing *bc* : to time of describing *BC* ::

$$\frac{bc}{\sqrt{ab}} : \frac{BC}{\sqrt{AB}} :: \frac{ab}{\sqrt{ab}} : \frac{AB}{\sqrt{AB}} :: \sqrt{ab} : \sqrt{AB} :: \sqrt{ad} : \sqrt{AD},$$

because the curves are similarly divided. Whence, by composition the whole time of describing *ab* : whole

F

time

FIG. time of describing $AB ::$ is in the same given ratio of
 54. $\sqrt{ab} : \sqrt{AB}$. or $\sqrt{ad} : \sqrt{AD}$.

Cor. 1. Hence if two Pendulums describe similar arches; the times of their Vibrations, are as the square roots of their lengths. or the lengths as the squares of the times of Vibration.

For let bd , HD be the lengths of the pendulums; then because the figures are similar, it is $ad : AD :: bd : HD$.

Cor. 2. If a pendulum vibrates in a circle, the velocity in the lowest point is as the cord of the Arch it described in descending.

For (by Cor. 2. Pr. 38.) it acquires the same velocity in the arch as in the cord; and (by Cor. 2. Pr. 37.) the velocity in the cord, is as the cord.

Cor. 3. The length of pendulums vibrating similar arches, are reciprocally proportional to the squares of the number of their vibrations, in a given time.

P R O P. XL.

If a pendulum vibrates in a cycloid, the time of one vibration, is to the time of a body's falling perpendicularly through half the length of the Pendulum; as the circumference of a circle to the diameter.

55. Let ADa be the cycloid, FD its axis, FGD the generating circle. Let the body descend from H , and in vibrating describe the arch HDb . Divide HD into innumerable small parts, and let Bb be one of them. Through H , B , b , draw HMb , BL , bl , perpendicular to the axis FD . about the diameter MD describe the semi-circle MLD ; and from its center Q , draw QL ,

Sect. IV. IN CURVE SURFACES.

67

QL , also draw LP parallel to MD , and DE , DG , GE .

Fig.

55.

The triangles CDG , GDE are similar, and $CD \times DE = GD^2$ also the triangles QLN and ILP are similar, and $NL : PL :: QL : LI$, and $2NL : Nn :: MD : LI$. And since by the nature of the cycloid, the tangent in B is parallel to the arch GD , therefore Gg is equal and parallel to Bb .

Now suppose a body to descend from E through the inclined plane ED ; since this is a motion uniformly accelerated, therefore (by Cor. 1. Pr. 6.) it would, in the time of its fall, describe $2ED$, with the velocity acquired in D . And since (by Cor. Pr. 3.) the times are as the spaces directly, and velocities reciprocally; and (by Cor. 2. Prop. 38.) the velocities are as the square roots of the heights; therefore it will

be, as time of describing ED : time in $Cc :: \frac{2ED}{\sqrt{MD}}$.

$\frac{Cc}{\sqrt{MN}} :: \frac{2MD}{\sqrt{MD}}$ or $2\sqrt{MD} : \frac{Nn}{\sqrt{MN}} :: 2\sqrt{MD \times MN} : Nn$. by similar triangles.

Again, when the velocity is given, the time is as the space described. therefore it will be as time in Cc : time in $Bb :: Cc : Bb$ or $Gg :: CD : GD$ or $\sqrt{CD \times DE} :: \sqrt{CD} : \sqrt{DE} :: \sqrt{DN} : \sqrt{DM}$; by similar triangles. therefore ex equo, time in ED : time in $Bb :: 2\sqrt{MD \times MN \times DN} : Nn\sqrt{DM} :: 2\sqrt{MN \times DN}$ or $2NL : Nn :: MD : LI$. therefore, by composition it is, as time in ED : time in the arch $Hb :: MD : \text{arch } ML$. And as the time in ED : whole time in $HD :: MD : \text{semicircumference } MLD$.

And since the time of descending through HD is equal to the time of ascending through Db : And (by Prop. 37.) the time of descending through ED is equal to the time in the diameter FD . and $2FD = DV$ the length of the pendulum (being the radius of curvature in D); therefore as the time of falling thro'

FIG. 55. half the length of the pendulum FD : time in HDb or time of one vibration :: diameter MD : circumference $2MLD$.

Cor. 1. Hence all vibrations great and small, are performed in the same time. For the descent through HD is always the same, wherever the point H is taken.

Cor. 2. The time of descent in HB , to the time of descent in HD ; is as the arch ML , to the semicircumference MLD .

Cor. 3. The velocity of the pendulum in any point B , is as $\sqrt{DH^2 - DB^2}$, or $\sqrt{HB \times BDF}$.

For (by Cor. 1. Pr. 14.) the square of the velocity in B is as MN , that is as $MD - ND$, or $\frac{ED^2 - GD^2}{DF}$ or $DH^2 - DB^2$; because $DH = 2DE$, and $DB = 2GD$ by the nature of the cycloid; and DF is given.

56. Cor. 4. If the length of the pendulum VD be made double the axis FD ; and ARV , arV , be two semicycloids equal to AHD . and so placed that the vertex as D be at A and a . then the pendulum VH vibrating between the cycloidal cheeks ARV , arV ; the point H will describe the cycloid $AHDba$; and the time of its vibration will be $3,1416 \times$ time of falling through FD , half the length of the pendulum.

All this follows from the nature of the cycloid.

Cor. 5. Hence also it appears from Experiments on pendulums, that at the surface of the earth, a heavy body will descend through a space of $16\frac{1}{2}$ english feet nearly, in one second of time.

For it is found by observation, upon clocks, that a pendulum 39,13 inches long, vibrates once in a second; therefore

Sect. IV. VIBRATION OF PENDULUMS.

69

therefore $\frac{1}{3.1416} =$ time of a body's falling through

FIG.
56.

FD or $\frac{39.13}{2}$ inches. And consequently (by Prop.

14.) the space fallen through in 1 second will be $\frac{39.13}{2}$

$\times 3.1416^2 = 193.096$ inches = 16.0913 feet. Yet a pendulum vibrating freely will be something longer in vibrating than a clock; because the palate wheel of the clock acting against it, takes off something from its ascent, and makes it return sooner, or shortens the time.

Cor. 6 Hence also if pendulums of the same quantity of matter, and unequal lengths be acted on by different forces of gravity; their lengths will be as the forces of gravity, and the squares of the times of vibration.*

For the times of vibration are in a given ratio to the times of descent through half the lengths of the pendulums. And (by Cor. 3. Pr. 5.) if the matter be given, the velocity generated in descending bodies is as the force and time; and (by Pr. 6.) the space descended is as the velocity and time, that is, as the force and square of the time. therefore half the length of the pendulum, is as the force, and square of the time of descending half its length; whence the length is as the force and square of the time of vibration.

Cor. 7. From the motion of pendulums it also follows that in any one place, the quantity of matter in any body is proportional to its weight.

For it is certain from experience that pendulums of equal length, whatever quantities of matter they contain, vibrate in the same time. Therefore they will descend through half the length of the pendulum in the same time; and consequently would acquire equal velocities in the same time. Therefore (by Pr.

- FIG. 5.) the velocity and time being given, the quantity of
56. matter is as the force of gravity.

Cor. 8. Hence it also follows, that there are vacuities or empty spaces in bodies. For since (by Cor. 7.) the quantity of matter is as the weight of the body; if it were true that there is an absolute *plenum*; all bodies of the same bulk must be of equal weight: which is contrary to all experience.

P R O P. XLI.

57. If a pendulum AT oscillates in a circle TRQ , and in the mean time be acted on in the several points T , by a force tending perpendicular to the horizon, which is to the uniform force of gravity; as the arch TR , is to the sine TN : the times of all vibrations will be equal, whether greater or lesser.

For from any point T draw TZ perpendicular to the horizon, and TY a tangent to the circle in T ; and let AT express the uniform force of gravity, TZ the variable force at T ; draw ZY perpendicular to TY , then the force TZ will be resolved into the two TY , YZ . of which YZ , acting in direction AT does not at all change the motion of the body, but the force TY directly accelerates its motion in the circle TR . The triangles ATN , ZTY are similar, and $TZ : TA :: TY : TN$; but (by supposition) $TZ : TA :: \text{arch } TR : TN$; therefore $TY = \text{arch } TR$. that is, the force TY is as the arch to be described TR . Therefore if AT , At be let fall together from the points T , t ; the velocities generated in equal times, will be as the forces TY , ty ; that is as the arches TR , tR , to be described. But the parts described at the beginning of the motion, are as the velocities, that is as the wholes to be described at the beginning; and therefore the parts which remain to be described, and the subsequent accelerations proportional

Sect. IV. VIBRATION OF PENDULUMS:

71

FIG.
57.

portional to these Parts, are also as the wholes, &c. Therefore the velocities generated, and the parts described with these velocities, and the parts to be described are always as the wholes. And therefore the parts to be described, being every where as the velocities they are described with, will be described in equal times and vanish together: that is, the two bodies oscillating will arrive at the perpendicular *AR* together.

Cor. 1. Hence, that the vibrations in a circle may be isocronal; the force TZ must be = $\frac{TR}{TN} \times$ gravity.

Cor. 2. Hence if a pendulum vibrates by the force of gravity only; the times of vibration, in very small, different arches, will be very nearly equal.

For in small arches the ratio of the arch to the sine is nearly a ratio of equality.

Cor. 3. But the time of vibration in larger arches, is greater than the time in lesser arches of a circle.

For the gravity at *T* being less than the isocronal force; the body will be longer in describing that arch.

Cor. 4. Hence also if a pendulum vibrates in the small arch of a circle; the time of one vibration is to the time of a body's falling through twice the length of the pendulum; as half the circumference of a circle to the diameter.

For *AR* is the radius of curvature of a cycloid, whose axis is $\frac{1}{2}AR$. therefore the circle and cycloid coincide at *R*, and the small arches of both will be described in the same time, that is, as expressed by Prop. 40. only here we take twice the length of the pendulum and half the circumference, which comes to the same thing, by Cor. 1. Pr. 39.

F 4

SCHOL.

S C H O L.

In these Propositions, the vibrating body is supposed to be very small, and is therefore considered only as a point. But if it be of any determinate bigness the point to which the length of the pendulum is measured, is not in the middle or center of gravity of the body; but in another place, and is called the center of oscillation, as will appear in the VI. Section.

It has been proved that a pendulum is longer in vibrating in a large arch of a circle than in a small one. And it may be computed, that if a pendulum vibrates seconds in an extremely small arch; and C be the length in inches, of the cord of any arch A ; then $3\frac{1}{2}CC$ will be the seconds lost in 24 hours by vibrating in the arch $2A$.

And if a pendulum vibrates seconds in an arch $2a$, and c be the cord of a , or of half the whole arch. then $3\frac{1}{2} \times \overline{CC} - cc$ will be the seconds lost in 24 hours, by vibrating in the arch, the cord of whose half is C .

Also if the bob of a pendulum can be screwed up or down; and you put n = number of threads of the screw contained in an inch, y = time in minutes that the clock gains or loses in 24 hours. Then it follows by the theory of pendulums, that $\frac{2}{37}ny$ will be the number of threads or revolutions of the nut, that the bob is to be let down or raised, to beat seconds.

S E C T.

S E C T. V.

Of the center of gravity and its properties.

P R O P. XLII.

If a line be drawn from the center of gravity of a body perpendicular to the horizon; if this perpendicular falls within the base upon which the body rests, the body will stand; but if it falls without the base, it will fall down.

C A S E I.

Let C be the center of gravity, CD perpendicular to the horizon, falling within the base $BEFG$; draw RC and suppose the whole body suspended at the point C ; then (by def. 12.) the body will be in equilibrium, and remain at rest upon DC . Now take away DC , and suppose the body to be supported only upon the line RC , moveable about R ; then (by Ax. 8.) the body AB , together with the line RC , will endeavour to descend from the position RC towards D . Also for the same reason the body and the line CS will endeavour to descend from the position CS towards D ; but as these two motions oppose one another, the body will be sustained by the points R, S , and therefore it will stand without falling. And the same is true of every two opposite points R, S .

58.

CASE

CENTER OF GRAVITY.

CASE II.

But if CD fall without the base; then the line RC and the body at C will endeavour to descend towards D ; also the body C and line CG will endeavour to descend towards D likewise, and as this motion does not oppose the other, there will be nothing to support the body; therefore it must necessarily fall towards D .

Cor. 1. Hence it follows that if the center of gravity of a body be supported, the whole body is supported. And the center of gravity of the body must be esteemed the place of the body. And if it be sustained by any leaver or beam, its place is at the point where the beam is cut by a line drawn from the center of Gravity perpendicular to the horizon.

Cor. 2. All the gravity of a body, or the force it endeavours to descend with, is collected into the center of Gravity: And therefore whatever sustains the center of gravity, sustains the whole weight. And the descent of a body must be estimated by the descent of its center of gravity.

Cor. 3. Hence also the larger the base is, upon which a body stands, and the further within it the center of gravity lies, the firmer the body will stand; and the more difficult to be removed. On the contrary, the less the base, or the less the center of gravity falls within it, so much the easier it is to be moved out of its place.

60.

Cor. 4. If a body be laid upon a plane GF , and one end F gradually raised up; the body will slide down the plane, if the perpendicular CD fall within the base; but if it fall without, it will roll down.

P R O P.

PROP. XLIII.

The common center of gravity C of two bodies A, B, is in the right line joining their centers of gravity; and the distance of either body from the common center of gravity, is reciprocally as the quantity of matter in it. 61.

Let A, B be the centers of gravity of A and B , and suppose AB to be an inflexible right line, or lever; and C the fulcrum. Then if C be the center of gravity of the bodies A, B ; these bodies (by def. 12.) will be in equilibrio. And consequently (by Cor. 4. Pr. 19.) $AC : CB :: B : A$.

Cor. 1. If there be never so many bodies; the common center of gravity of them all is in the right line drawn from the center of gravity of any one, to the center of gravity of all the rest; and it divides this line into two parts, reciprocally as that body to the sum of all the rest of the bodies.

For let D be another body; and let B and A be placed in C ; then will $C : D :: DE : CE$. and so on for more bodies.

Cor. 2. If several bodies A, B, D, E, F be in equilibrio upon a streight lever AF ; then the fulcrum C is at the common center of gravity of all the bodies. 62.

PROP. XLIV.

If there be several bodies A, B, D, E, F; and if any plane PQ be drawn perpendicular to the horizon; the sum of the products of each body multiplied by its distance from that plane, if they are all on one side; or their difference, if on different sides; is equal to the sum 63.

FIG.
63.

sum of all the bodies multiplied by the distance of their center of gravity from that plane.

Draw lines perpendicular and parallel to the plane PQ as in the fig. and let C be the center of gravity. then (by Cor. 3. Prop. 19.) the force of all the bodies to move the plane PQ about R , will be $mD \times D + oE \times E + rF \times F - Ak \times A - Bl \times B$. that is $dC + RC \times D + eC + RC \times E + fC + RC \times F - aC - RC \times A - bC - RC \times B$, or $dC \times D + eC \times E + fC \times F - aC \times A - bC \times B + RC \times D + E + F + A + B$. but because C is the center of gravity of the bodies, therefore (by Pr. 20) $dC \times D + eC \times E = fC \times F + aC \times A + bC \times B$; therefore we have $mD \times D + oE \times E + rF \times F - Ak \times A - Bl \times B = RC \times A + B + D + E + F$.

Cor. 1. This Prop is equally true for any plane whatever. For suppose the plane and the bodies to be put into any oblique position, all the distances will remain the same as before.

Cor. 2. If any plane be drawn through the common Center of gravity C , of any number of bodies A, B, D , &c. and each body be multiplied by the distance of its center of gravity, from that plane; the sum of the products on each side are equal; $A \times aC + B \times bC + F \times fC = D \times dC + E \times eC$.

For the distance of a body must be estimated by the distance of its center of gravity.

Cor. 3. Hence also, the sum (or difference) of the products of each particle of a body, multiplied by its distance from any plane whatever, is equal to the whole body multiplied by the distance of its center of gravity from that plane. And if the plane pass through the center of gravity; the sums of the products on each side are equal.

Cor.

Sect. V. CENTER OF GRAVITY.

77

FIG.
63.

Cor. 4. The sum of the forces of a system of bodies is the very same, as if all the bodies were collected into their common center of gravity, and exerted their several forces there.

For the sum of all the forces are $mD \times D + oE \times E$, &c. or $RC \times A + B + D + E + F$.

Cor. 5. And the same is true of any forces whatever with regard to the center of gravity of these forces. And therefore if several forces act in parallel directions; the sum of all these forces will be equivalent to one single force; and their common center of gravity, the place where it acts.

Cor. 6. If a circle be described about the center of gravity G, of a system of bodies A, B, C; and any point S be taken at pleasure in the circumference; then $SA^2 \times A + SB^2 \times B + SC^2 \times C$ is a given quantity.

80.

For draw SG, on which let fall the perpendiculars Aa, Bb, Cc. Then (by Eucl. II. 12, 13.) $SA^2 \times A + SB^2 \times B + SC^2 \times C = SG^2 + GA^2 + 2SG \times Ga \times A + SG^2 + GB^2 - 2SG \times Gb \times B + SG^2 + GC^2 + 2SG \times Gc \times C$. but (by Cor. 2.) $Ga \times A - Gb \times B + Gc \times C = 0$, and all the rest are given quantities.

P R O P. XLV.

If there be several forces in one plane, acting against one another in the point C, whose quantities and directions are CA, CB, CD, CE, CF; and if they keep one another in equilibrio: I say C is the center of gravity of all the points A, B, C, D, E. And any one of them as EC being produced, will pass through the center of gravity G of all the rest.

64.

Since

FIG.

64.

Since all the forces are in equilibrio, the sum of the forces acting against EC will destroy its effects, and act against it in the same line of direction.

Upon EC let fall the perpendiculars Aa , Bb , Dd , Ff : then any force AC is divided into two Aa , aC . Now as the point C is in equilibrio, all the perpendicular forces Aa , Bb , on one side, are equal to all those Dd , Ff on the other, by Ax. 11. And if the body 1 be supposed to be suspended at A , B , D , E , F . then since $Aa \times 1 + Bb \times 1 = Dd \times 1 + Ff \times 1$; the center of gravity of the bodies A , B , C , D (and also of all the bodies), is in the line EC . Again it follows from the equilibrium of the forces, that $EC + aC = Cb + Cd + Cf$, by Ax. 11. And therefore if the body 1 be suspended at the points E , a , d , b , f ; C is their center of gravity; that is, C is the center of gravity of E , A , B , D , F .

Cor. 1. If G be the center of gravity of A , B , D , F ; then $EC = CG \times$ number of points A , B , D , F .

For $EC = Cb + Cd + Cf - Ca = CG \times \overline{A + B + D + F}$, or $4CG$, by Prop. 44.

Cor. 2. Sum of all the perpendiculars on one side, Aa , $Bb =$ sum Dd , Ff on the other side of EC . And the sum of their distances CE , Ca on one side $=$ sum Cd , Cb , Cf on the other side of C .

PROP. XLVI.

65. *If a body be acted on by several forces A , B , C , D , E , in the parallel directions Aa , Bb , &c. and kept in equilibrio; and if any plane RN be drawn from any point R : the sum of the forces on each side are equal, $A + D = B + C + E$; and the sum of the products on each*

Sect. V. CENTER OF GRAVITY.

79

each side, are equal to the like sum of the products on the other side, $RaxA + RdxD = RbxB + Rcx C - Re \times E$: And the contrary. but any product lying the contrary way from R must be taken negative.

FIG.
65.

For suppose RN to be the plane, acted on by these forces; then (by Cor. 5. Pr. 44.) the effect of the forces A and D acting at a and d , is the same as if they both acted at O , their center of gravity. And the effect of B, C, E acting at b, c, e , is the same as if they all acted at their center of gravity; which because the body is unmoved, is the same point O . And therefore because of the equilibrium; $A + D = B + C + E$, for the quantity of force.

In respect to their places, because O is the center of gravity of A and D , as well as of B, C , and E , therefore (by Pr. 44.) $Ra \times A + Rd \times D = RO \times A + D = RO \times B + C + E = Rb \times B + Rc \times C - Re \times E$. And on the contrary if these forces be equal, the body will be in equilibrio, by Ax. 9.

Cor. 1. If a body $FGIH$ be at rest whilst it is acted upon by several forces, in the same plane, whose quantities and directions are pA, qB, rC, sD, tE , cutting any line RN drawn in the body, at $p, q, \&c.$ and the perpendiculars $Aa, Bb, \&c.$ are drawn. then I say, 1. the sum of the perpendicular forces on each side are equal, $Aa + Dd = Bb + Cc + Ee$. 2. The sums of the contrary forces in direction of the line RN are equal, $pa + qb = rc + sd + te$. 3. The sum of the rectangles on each side, from any point R , are equal, $Rp \times Aa + Rs \times Dd = Rq \times Bb + Rr \times Cc + Rt \times Ee$. but where the points lye the contrary way from R , the rectangles must be negative. And when all these are equal, the body is at rest.

66.

For since it is the same thing whether any force A act at A at F or at p . we will suppose it to act at p ; then if the oblique force pA be divided into the two pa, aA ; and the same for the rest: then the sum of all

FIG. 66. all the forces pa must be equal to the sum of all the contrary forces cr , by Ax. 11. The rest follows from this Prop.

Cor. 2. And if a body be kept in equilibrio by several forces acting at different points, and in different directions, either in the same plane, or in different planes; it will still be in equilibrio, by the same forces, acting from any one point, and in directions respectively parallel to the former.

For in the same plane the forces parallel and perpendicular to RN , will remain the same as before. And when the directions of any of the forces are out of this plane, all these extravagant or extraneous forces may be reduced to others, one part acting in the plane, the other perpendicular to it; and both these remain the same in quantity as before. And since the forces acting in the plane, kept one another in equilibrio at first, they will do the same still. And as the parts perpendicular to this plane, also kept one another in equilibrio at first, they will do the same when applied to their common center of gravity; or to any other point.

Cor. 3. If several forces acting after any manner, keep a body unmoved; and any plane whatever be drawn; and the vagrant forces be all reduced to that plane; then all the perpendicular forces on one side are equal to those on the other; and their centers of gravity fall in the same point. When this does not happen in all places, the body will be moved some way or other.

PROP. XLVII.

To find the center of gravity of a system of bodies A, B, C.

Draw

all
ws

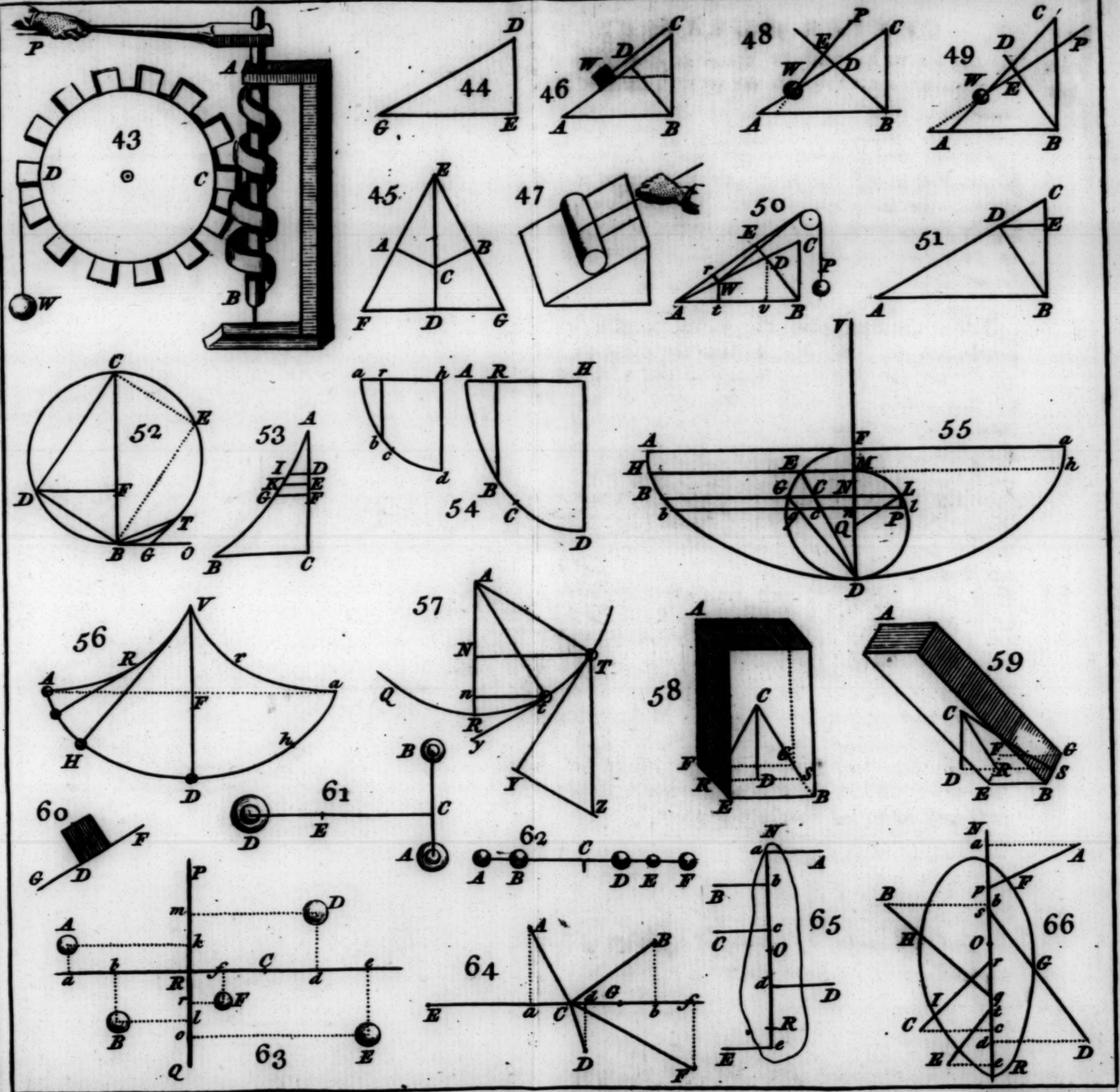
al
as,
will
my
be

er-
re,
out
ous
in
oth
nd
er
nd
pt
he
ty;

er,
on;
ben
ose
the
be

A,

aw



S

t

L

v

g

x

f

c

t

c

t

l

r

c

l

c

l

l

SECT. V. CENTER OF GRAVITY.

81

FIG.

67.

Draw any plane ST , and from the centers of gravity of all the bodies, draw perpendiculars to this plane, Aa, Bb, Cc . then (by Cor. 3. Pr. 19.) the forces of A, B, C at the distances Aa, Bb, Cc , from the plane, will be $A \times Aa, B \times Bb, C \times Cc$. let G be the center of gravity, then the sum of the forces $A \times Aa + B \times Bb + C \times Cc$ must be $= \overline{A+B+C} \times Gg$ the power of all the bodies situated in G (by Pr. 44.) whence the distance of the center of gravity from the plane, that is

$$Gg = \frac{Aa \times A + Bb \times B + Cc \times C}{A+B+C} \text{ where if any of}$$

the bodies be situate on the other side of the plane, the correspondent rectangles will be negative.

And if the distance be in like manner found from the plane TV , and likewise from another plane perpendicular to ST, TV ; the point G will be determined.

Cor. 1. Let b be any body, p any particle in it, d its distance from a given plane: then the distance of its center of gravity from that plane is $= \frac{\text{sum of all the } dp}{b}$.

Cor. 2. To find the center of gravity of an irregular plain figure. suspend it by the string AEB , at E ; and draw the plumb line ECF . then suspend it by another point of the string as D , and draw another plumb line through E , to intersect CF , and the point of intersection is the center of gravity.

68.

Cor. 3. To find the center of gravity of a flexible body: lay it upon a board whose center of gravity is known, lay the center of gravity of the board upon the edge of a prism; and lay the body upon it, and remove it back or forwards till it be in equilibrio upon the board.

G

SCHOL.

FIG.

S C H O L.

The centers of gravity of several planes and solids have been determined to be as follows.

1. If two lines be drawn from two angles of a *triangle* to the middle of the opposite sides, the point of intersection is the center of gravity. Therefore the distance of the center of gravity from the vertex is $\frac{2}{3}$ the line bisecting the opposite side.
69. 2. In a *trapezium* $ABCD$ the center of gravity is found by dividing it into triangles. Find E, G the centers of gravity of the triangles ADB, CDB ; and F, H the centers of gravity of ABC, ADC . Then draw EG, FH to intersect in O , the center of gravity of the trapezium.
3. The center of gravity of a *right line, parallelogram, cylinder, and prism*, is in the middle.
4. For the *arch of a circle*, as $\frac{1}{2}$ arch : sine of $\frac{1}{2}$ arch :: radius : distance of its center of gravity from the center.
5. For the *sector of a circle*, as arch : cord :: $\frac{2}{3}$ radius : distance of its center of gravity from the center.
6. For the *parabolic space*, the distance of the center of gravity from the vertex is $\frac{3}{5}$ the axis.
7. In the *cone and pyramid* the distance of the center of gravity from the vertex is $\frac{3}{4}$ the axis.
8. In a *paraboloid*, the distance of the center of gravity from the vertex is $\frac{2}{5}$ the axis.
9. For the *segment of a sphere*, let r = radius, x = height of the segment; then the distance of the center of gravity from the vertex is $\frac{8r-3x}{12r-4x}x$.

P R O P.

PROP. XLVIII.

If two or more bodies move uniformly in any given directions; their common center of gravity will either be at rest, or move uniformly in a right line.

CASE I.

Let one body stand still, and the other move directly to, or from it in a right line, then since the center of gravity divides the distance, in a given ratio; and the distance increases uniformly, therefore that center moves uniformly. Now suppose the other body likewise to move in the same right line, and any quantity of space to move along with it; then since this body is relatively at rest in this space, the center of gravity, in regard to that space, moves uniformly; to which adding or subtracting the uniform motion of that space; the center of gravity will still move uniformly.

CASE II.

Let the bodies move in one plane, in the directions DE , AB . produce their lines of direction till they meet in D . And when one body is in D and E , let the other be in A and B respectively. Let H be their center of gravity when in D and A , and K when in E and B , and draw HK , and make $BP=AD$, and draw EP , and KL parallel to AB . then DE is to AB or DP in the given ratio of the motion of the bodies; and since the $\angle EDP$ is given, therefore all the angles of the triangle EDP are given, and DP will be to PE in a given ratio. But by similar triangles PE is to PL in the given ratio of BE to BK , by the property of the center of gravity: therefore DP is to PL in a given ratio. And all the angles in the triangle

701

FIG. 70. DPL are given, and therefore the angle PDL . therefore the point L is always in the line DL given in position. And by the nature of the center of gravity, $DA : DH :: EB : EK :: PB$ or $DA : LK$. therefore $DH = LK$, whence $DHKL$ is a parallelogram, and HK parallel to DL , and therefore the angle BHK is given; and the center of gravity K is always in the right line HK given by position. And because all the angles of the triangles DPL , and DLE are given; therefore the lines DP , DE , DL , that is, AB , DE , HK are in a given ratio; and consequently the point K moves uniformly along the right line HK . And the demonstration is in the same manner, if one of the bodies B moves from B towards A .

CASE III.

71. Let the paths of the bodies AB , DE , be in different planes. Through the path AB draw a plane Bde parallel to the path DE , and through DE draw the plane $DdeE$ perpendicular to Bde produce AB to d , and let Dd , Ee be perpendicular to de . then the planes DdA , EeB will be perpendicular to the plane edB . Let one body be in A and B when the other is in D and E respectively. Now if the body at D were to move in de , then by case 2d the center of gravity would move uniformly along some right line HK , through HK erect the plane $HKkb$ perpendicular to HBK . then by similar triangles, and the nature of the center of gravity, $Ab : bD :: (AH : Hd :: BK : Ke ::) Bk : kE$. therefore bk is the path of the center of gravity of the bodies moving in AB , DE . likewise $Dd : Hb :: Ad : AH :: Be : BK :: eE$ or $Dd : Kk$; therefore $Hb = Kk$, and bk is equal and parallel to HK ; therefore the center of gravity of the bodies (moving in AB , DE) moves uniformly through the right line bk .

CASE

CASE IV.

The common center of gravity of two bodies, and a third is either at rest or moves uniformly in a right line; for these two may be put into the place of their center of gravity, which before moved uniformly, and then the center of gravity of the three will move uniformly. likewise the common center of gravity of three bodies and a fourth, will move uniformly in a right line. And so on.

PROP. XLIX.

The common center of gravity of two or more bodies, does not change its state of motion or rest, by any actions of the bodies among themselves, or by any forces they exert upon one another.

Suppose any space in which the bodies are inclosed to move uniformly along with the center of gravity of the bodies, before the actions of the bodies upon one another; then the center of gravity is at rest in that space. Now if two bodies mutually act upon one another, since their distances from their center of gravity are reciprocally as the bodies; and as action and reaction are equal; the bodies will approach or recede from that center by spaces which are in the same ratio; therefore the center of gravity will still remain at rest. And in a system of several bodies, because the common center of gravity of any two acting mutually upon each other, is at rest: And the actions of all the bodies being the sum of the actions of every two; it is evident the center of gravity of all the bodies remains the same as if they did not act at all upon one another, and therefore is at rest in this space or moves uniformly forward along with it.

FIG.

71.

Cor. 1. Hence if a body be projected into free space ; if it have any circular motion, this motion will be performed uniformly about an axis passing through the center of gravity.

For if every particle of the body retained the distinct motion first impressed on it ; the common center of gravity of the whole would move in a right line, by the last Prop. And since the cohesion of the parts of the body retains the particles in one mass, therefore (by this Prop.) the motion of the center of gravity is not altered, which it would be if the axis of circular motion did not pass thro' the center of gravity, but thro' some other point.

Cor. 2. And if a body be hurled into the air, its center of gravity will either move in a right line, or describe a parabola, whilst that body revolves about an axis passing through the center of gravity, if it have any circular motion.

P R O P. L.

The sum of the motions of several bodies in any given direction, is the same as the motion of all the bodies in the same direction, moved with the velocity of the common center of gravity.

72.

Let the bodies A, B move round the center of gravity C at rest, to the planes ab ; draw BCA, bCa . then since $A : B :: BC : AC :: bc : ac$; therefore the triangles ACa, BCb are similar, and $\angle bBc = CAa$, therefore Bb is parallel to Aa , and the bodies move in contrary directions. Also since $Aa : Bb :: AC : CB :: B : A$, or $Aa \times A = Bb \times B$. therefore the motions of A, B in contrary directions are equal, or their motion the same way is o . Now let the space and bodies moving

Sect. V. CENTER OF GRAVITY.

87

FIG:
72.

moving in it, be moved in any direction with any velocity v ; it is manifest, the motion in each body in that direction will be greater than before, by the quantity of matter $\times$ velocity. Therefore the sum of the motions is now $vA + vB$ or $v \times \overline{A+B}$, that is equal to the sum of the bodies $\times$ velocity of the center of gravity.

After the same manner the motion of three bodies is the same as the motion of two of them, moved with the velocity of their common center of gravity, together with the motion of the third; that is, (by what has been shewn) equal to the sum of all the three moved with the velocity of the center of gravity of all the three. And so for more bodies.

Cor. The center of gravity of a body must be taken for the place of the body. And the motion of any body, or of any system of bodies, must be estimated by the motion of the center of gravity.

P R O P. LI.

If two weights on any machine keep one another in equilibrium; if they be any how raised or moved by help of the machine, the center of gravity of the weight and power will always be in the same horizontal right line.

For in the leaver the center of gravity is at the fulcrum, and therefore it neither ascends nor descends. In the wheel and axel, and in the pulley or any combination of pullies, the weight and power approach or recede from each other by spaces which are reciprocally as the bodies; and therefore their center of gravity is at rest. And upon any inclined plane, the perpendicular velocities of the power and weight (by Cor. 4. Pr. 33.) are reciprocally as their quantities:

- FIG. ties; and the distance of the center of gravity from each, being in the same ratio, is also at rest. And
 72. universally in any combination of these or any machine whatever, where the equilibrium continues; the ascent and descent of the power and weight being reciprocally as their quantities: the center of gravity neither ascends nor descends,

P R O P. LII.

73. *If a heavy body AB be suspended by two ropes AC, BD; a right line perpendicular to the horizon, passing thro' the intersection F, of the ropes, will also pass through the center of gravity G, of the body.*

For continue the lines AC , BD to F ; then it is the same thing whether the forces that sustain the body act at C and D , or at F , in the same directions; suppose therefore that the body AFB is suspended at F ; then since (by Ax. 7.) the body will descend as low as it can get; and (by Cor. Pr. 50.) the center of gravity must be taken for the place of the body; therefore the center of gravity G will be in the line FG perpendicular to the horizon.

And it is the same thing if AC , BD intersect in a point F below the body; for the body cannot be supported, except the center of gravity G , be in the perpendicular GF .

Cor. 1. Hence, if GN be drawn parallel to AC ; the weight of the body, the forces acting at C , and D , are respectively as FG , GN , and FN , or as the sines of the angles AFB , GFB , and GFA .

Cor. 2. The lines AC , DB and FG are all in one plane perpendicular to the horizon,

Cor,

Cor. 3. If the center of gravity falls not in the line FG , the body will not rest till it fall in that line. 73.

PROP. LIII.

If any body whatever as BC or any beam loaded with a weight, be supported by two planes AB , CD , at C and B ; and from the points C , B , the lines CF , BF , be drawn perpendicular to these planes; and from the intersection F , the line FH be drawn perpendicular to the horizon, it will pass through the center of gravity G of the body. 74.

For since the body is sustained by the planes at B , C , and these planes react against the body in the perpendicular directions BF , CF ; therefore it is the same thing as if the body was sustained by the two ropes BF , CF ; and consequently (by Prop. last), FH will pass through G the center of gravity of the whole weight.

Cor. 1. If EG be drawn parallel to CF ; then the whole weight, the pressure upon the planes CD , AB ; are respectively as FG , EG , EF ; and in these very directions: or as the sines of the angles BFC , BFG , and CFG .

Cor. 2. If the line FG drawn (from the intersection of the perpendiculars FC , FB), perpendicular to the horizon, does not pass through the center of gravity; the body will not be sustained, but will move till the center of gravity fall in that line.

Cor. 3. Hence if the position of one plane CD be given, and the position of the body CB , and its center of gravity G . The position of the other plane AB may be found, by which the body will be supported: By drawing CF perpendicular

- FIG. 74. perpendicular to CD , and GF Perp. to the horizon; and from F drawing FB , then BA perpendicular to it, is the other plane.

PROP. LIV.

75. If a heavy body HD , whose center of gravity is G , be sustained by three forces A, B, C , in one plane, acting in directions AH, BI, CD . And if FGP be drawn perpendicular to the horizon, and CD produced to cut it in P ; and if AH, BI , produced, intersect in O ; then if OP be drawn; and if EP, OF be drawn parallel to AO, PC ; then I say the weight of the body, the three forces A, B, C ; are respectively as FP, EP, EO, OF .

Because the line OP is unmoved; the point O is sustained by three forces in directions OP, OA, OB ; which therefore are as the lines OP, EP, OE . Also the point P is sustained by three forces in the directions PO, PC, GP ; which therefore are as the lines OP, OF, FP : of which that in direction FP is the weight of the body, at G the center of gravity. And the forces at O , and P in directions OP are equal and contrary.

Cor. Hence if any other force instead of the weight act at G , in direction GP ; then the forces at P, A, B, C , will be respectively as FP, EP, EO, OF .

SCHOL.

If one of the forces be given; all the rest may be found, if they act two and two at different points O, P . But if five forces act in one plane, two of them must be given.

PROP

PROP. LV.

FIG.

76.

If $EBDF$ be any prismatic solid erected upon a plane AD ; and if it be cut by any plane AGH . I say, the surface, or solid $GBDH$, cut off by this plane, is respectively equal to the surface or solid $EBDF$ whose altitude is CI , the line passing through the center of gravity of the base, and parallel to the axis of the solid.

I shall not demonstrate this geometrically by measuring, but mechanically by weighing them. Suppose the periphery, or the base, BD , to be divided into an infinite number of equal parts by planes perpendicular to the horizon, and parallel to the axis of the solid and to one another. And imagine AD to be a lever, and let each particle be placed on AD where its plane cuts it. Then since the force of any particle to move the lever AD , is as that particle multiplied by its distance from A , (by Cor. 3. Pr. 19.) Therefore the forces of the equal particles at $B, C, D, \&c.$ will be as $AB, AC, AD, \&c.$ And the sum of all as the sum of these lines. And because C is the center of gravity of all the particles. Therefore the sum of all, $AB, AC, AD, \&c. =$ sum of as many times AC ; that is (because the parts of the base are given) $= AC \times$ base. But $GB, IC, HD, \&c.$ are as AB, AC, AD . therefore all the $GB, IC, HD, \&c. =$ whole base $\times IC$. that is the whole surface or solid $GBDH =$ whole surface or solid $BEFD$.

Cor. 1. If a line right or curve, or any plane figure whether right lined or curvelined, revolve about an axis in the plane of the figure; the surface or solid generated is respectively equal to the surface or solid, whose base is the line or figure given, and height equal to the arch described by the center of gravity.

77.

Let

FIG.

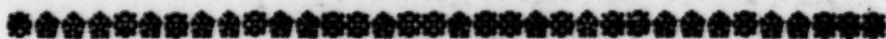
77.

Let $BDdb$ be the figure generated. On the base BCD erect the surface or solid $BDFE$, and let C be the center of gravity. Since the arches Bb , Cc , Dd , are as the radii, AB , AC , AD , that is as BG , CI , DH : therefore if $CI = Cc$, then will all the lines BG , CI , DH , &c. = all the arches Bb , Cc , Dd , &c. that is, the surface or solid $BDdb = BDHG$, that is, (by this Prop.) = $BDFE$.

Cor. 2. Also if a curve revolves about any right line drawn through its center of gravity: the surfaces generated (either by a partial or total revolution) on opposite sides of the line, will be equal.

For by Cor. 2. Pr. 44. each part of the curve multiplied by the distance of its center of gravity from this line, must be equal on both sides. And by Cor. 2. each surface generated is equal to the curve multiplied by the arch described at that distance; and these arches (being similar) are as these distances. Whence each surface is as the curve multiplied by the distance of its center of gravity: And therefore they are equal.

S E C T.



S E C T. VI.

Of the centers of percussio, ofcillation, and gyration.

P R O P. LVI.

Let there be any system of bodies A, B, C, considered without weight, and moveable about an axis passing thro' S; and if any force f can generate the absolute motion m in a given time; if the same force act at P perpendicular to PS, the motion generated in the system, in the same time, revolving about the axis at S, will be

$$\frac{A \times SA + B \times SB + C \times SC}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2} \times SP \times m.$$

72.

For suppose PS perpendicular to the axis at S, and to the line of direction PQ. And SA, SB, SC, perpendicular to the axis S. And suppose the force f divided into the parts p, q, r, acting separately at P to move A, B, C. then (by Cor. 3. Pr. 19.) the bodies A, B, C will be acted on respectively with the forces $\frac{SP}{SA} p$, $\frac{SP}{SB} q$, $\frac{SP}{SC} r$.

Since the angular motion of the whole system is the same; the velocities of A, B, C, are as SA, SB, SC; and their motions as $A \times SA$, $B \times SB$, $C \times SC$; and these motions are as their generating forces
SP

FIG.
78.

$\frac{SP}{SA} p, \frac{SP}{SB} q, \frac{SP}{SC} r$. Whence p, q, r . are as
 $\frac{A \times SA^2}{SP}, \frac{B \times SB^2}{SP}, \frac{C \times SC^2}{SP}$: put the sum of these
 $= s$, and since $p \times q + r = f$. Therefore $s : f ::$
 $\frac{A \times SA^2}{SP} : \frac{f \times A \times SA^2}{s \times SP} = p$. And $\frac{SP}{SA} p = \frac{f \times A \times SA}{s}$
 $=$ force acting at A . Then $f : m :: \frac{f \times A \times SA}{s}$
 $\frac{m \times A \times SA}{s} =$ motion of A . After the same manner
 $\frac{m \times B \times SB}{s}, \frac{m \times C \times SC}{s}$ are the motions of B and C .
 Therefore the whole motion generated in the system is
 $\frac{A \times SA + B \times SB + C \times SC}{s} \times m$.

Cor. 1. If you make $SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{A \times SA + B \times SB + C \times SC}$,
 then if all the bodies be placed in O , the motion generated
 in the system, will be the same as before, as to the quan-
 tity of motion, or the sum of all the absolute motions.
 But the angular velocity will be different.

For the motion generated in these two cases will be
 $\frac{A \times SA + B \times SB + C \times SC}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2} \times SP \times m$, and
 $\frac{A + B + C \times SO}{A + B + C \times SO^2} \times SP \times m$; and if these be supposed to
 be equal there comes out

$$SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{A \times SA + B \times SB + C \times SC}.$$

Cor. 2. The angular velocity of any system A, B, C ,
 generated

Se^t. VI. OSCILLATION, &c.

98

generated in a given time, by any force f , acting at P , perpendicular to PS , is as $\frac{SP \times f}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$ 78.

For the angular velocity of the whole system is the same as of one of the bodies A . But the absolute motion of A is $= \frac{m \times A \times SA}{s}$, and the absolute velo-

city of $A = \frac{m \times SA}{s}$; but the angular velocity is as

the absolute velocity directly and the radius or distance reciprocally; therefore the angular velocity of A , and consequently of the whole system is as

$\frac{m}{s}$ or $\frac{m \times SP}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$ that is (because m is as the force f)

as $\frac{f \times SP}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$.

Cor. 3. Hence there will be the same angular velocity generated in the system, and with the same force, as there would be in a single body placed at P , and whose quantity of matter is $\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SP^2}$.

For let $P =$ that body, then (by Cor. 2.) since f and SP are given; the angular velocities of the system and body P , will be to one another as

$\frac{1}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$ to $\frac{1}{P \times SP^2}$. which being supposed equal, we shall have
 $P = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SP^2}$.

Cor. 4. The angular motion of any system generated by a uniform force, will be a motion uniformly accelerated.

PROP.

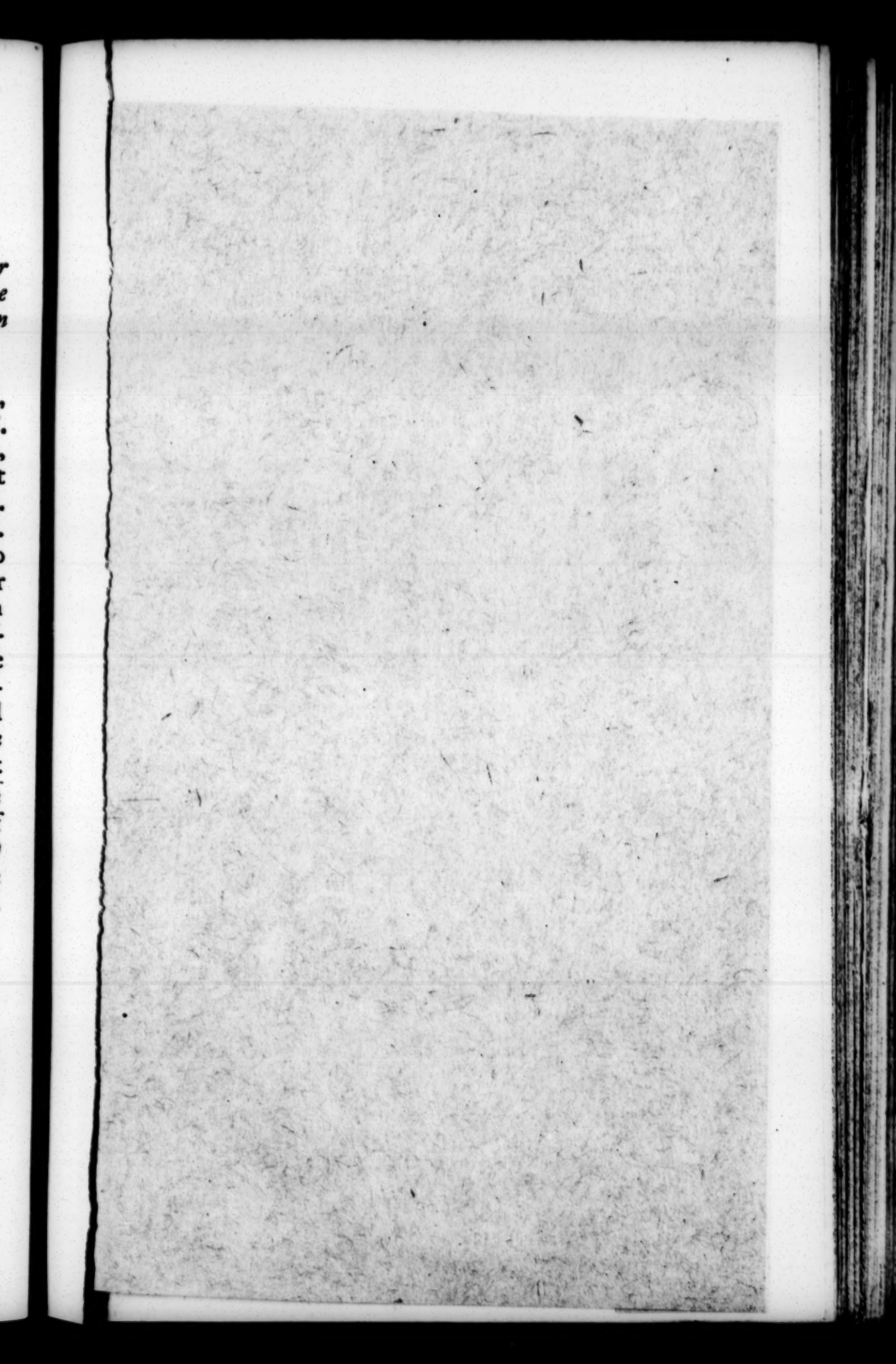
CENTER OF

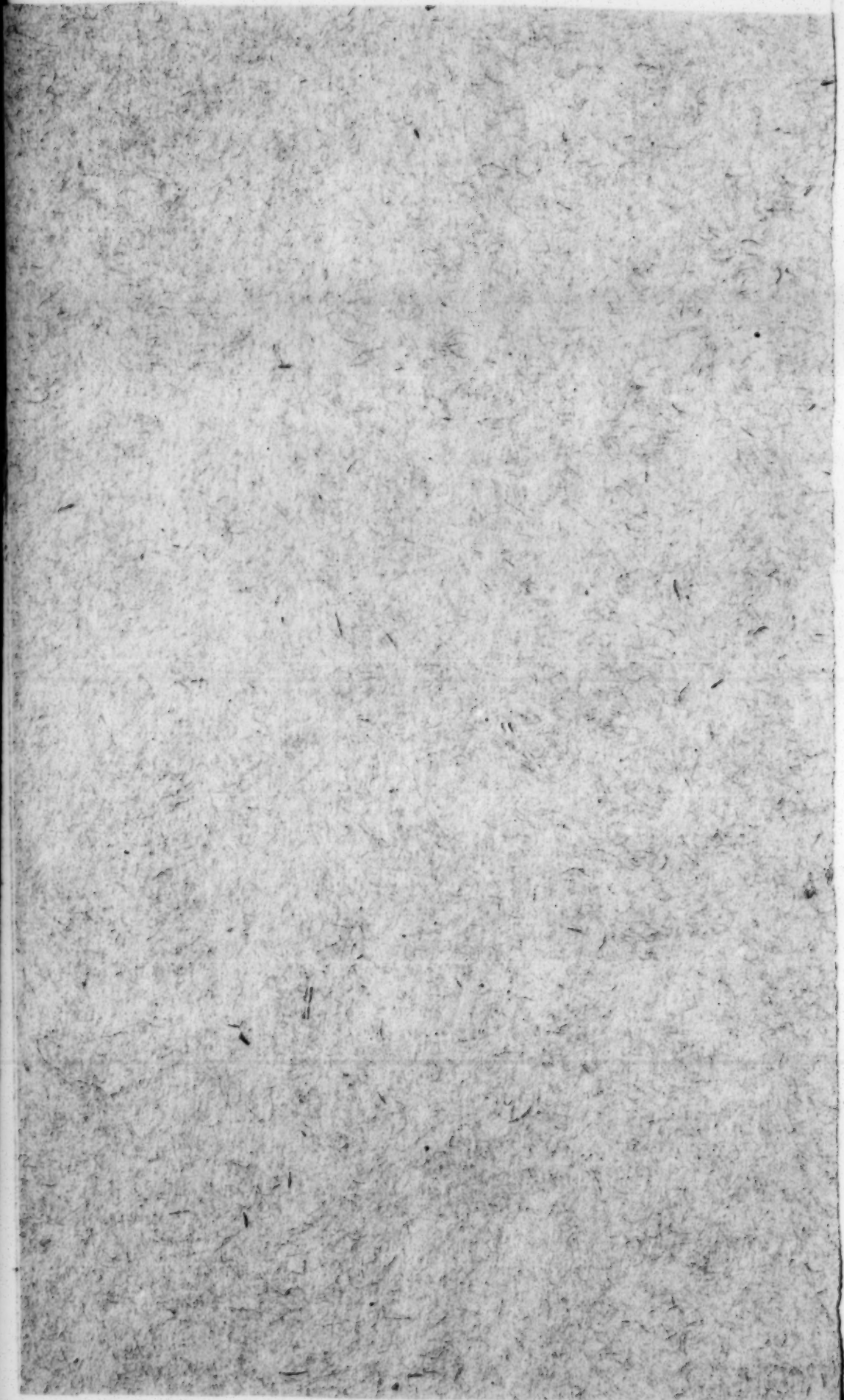
P R O P. LVII.

To find the center of percussion of a system of bodies : or the point which striking an immoveable object ; the system shall incline to neither side, but rest as it were in equilibrio.

79. Through the center of gravity G of the system, draw a plane perpendicular to the axis of motion in S . And if the bodies are not all situated in that plane, draw lines perpendicular to it from the bodies, and let A, B, C , be the places of those bodies in the plane. Draw SGO , and let O be the center of percussion. Draw Af, Bg, Cb , perpendicular to SO , and Aad to SA , and make $ad = SA$, and draw ea perpendicular and de parallel to SO . Then aA will be the direction of A 's motion, as it revolves about S . And the system being stopped at O , the body A will urge the point a forward, with a force proportional to its matter and velocity ; that is, as $A \times SA$ or $A \times ad$. And the force wherewith A acts at a in direction ea , is $A \times ea$ or $A \times Sf$. And the force of A to turn the system about O is $A \times Sf \times aO$ (by Cor. 3. Pr. 19.) $= A \times Sf \times SO - Sa^2 = A \times Sf \times SO - A \times SA^2$. Likewise the forces of B and C to turn the system about O , is as $B \times Sg \times SO - B \times SB^2$, and $C \times Sb \times SO - C \times SC^2$. And since the forces on the contrary sides of O destroy one another ; therefore $A \times Sf \times SO - A \times SA^2 + B \times Sg \times SO - B \times SB^2 + C \times Sb \times SO - C \times SC^2 = 0$. Therefore
- $$SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2, \&c.}{A \times Sf + B \times Sg + C \times Sb, \&c.},$$
- the distance of the center of percussion from the axis of motion. where note, if any points f, g, b , fall on the contrary side of S ; the correspondent rectangles must be negative, $-A \times Sf - B \times Sg, \&c.$

Cor.





S

be
fr

SO

A

ce

G

SO

+

B

=

A

W

G

A

A

ci

fr

Cor. 1. If G be the center of gravity of a system of bodies A, B, C ; the distance of the center of percussion from the axis of motion, that is,

$$SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SG \times A + B + C} \text{ &c.}$$

For (by Prop. 44.) $A \times Sf + B \times Sg + C \times Sb = A + B + C \times SG$.

Cor. 2. The distance of the center of percussion from the center of gravity G ; is,

$$GO = \frac{GA^2 \times A + GB^2 \times B + GC^2 \times C}{SG \times A + B + C}.$$

For $A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2 = A \times SG^2 + GA^2 - 2SG \times Gf + B \times SG^2 + GB^2 + 2SG \times Gg + C \times SG^2 + GC^2 + 2SG \times Gb$, by Eucl. II. 12 and 13. But (by Cor. 2. Pr. 44.) $-A \times Gf + B \times Gg + C \times Gb = 0$; therefore $A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2 = A + B + C \times SG^2 + A \times GA^2 + B \times GB^2 + C \times GC^2$. Whence (by Cor. 1.) SO or $SG +$

$$GO = \frac{SG^2 \times A + B + C}{SG \times A + B + C} + \frac{A \times GA^2 + B \times GB^2 + C \times GC^2}{SG \times A + B + C}$$

Cor. 3. Hence $SG \times GO =$ the given quantity $\frac{A \times GA^2 + B \times GB^2 + C \times GC^2}{A + B + C}$; and therefore GO is reciprocally as SG .

For each of the bodies A, B, C , and their distances from G are given.

FIG.

79.

Cor. 4. Hence also if SG be given, GO will be given also. And therefore if the plane of the motion remain the same, in respect to the bodies, and the distance SG remain the same; the distance of O from G will remain the same also.

Cor. 5. If OT be drawn perpendicular to SO , then OT will be the locus of all the centers of percussion.

For the direction of O is in the line OT ; and therefore it is the same thing which point of the line OT strikes an obstacle.

P R O P. LVIII.

- §1. To find the center of oscillation of a system of bodies: or such a point, in which a body being placed, will vibrate in the same time, and with the same angular velocity as the whole body.

Let the axis of motion be at S ; perpendicular to which draw the plane in which the center of gravity G moves; draw SGO , and let O be the center of oscillation; draw the horizontal line Sr , and from the bodies A, B, C , draw Aa, Bb, Cc perpendicular to SO ; and also Ae, Bu, Cd, Gg, Or perp. to Sr .

Put $s = A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2$. then (by Cor. 2. Pr. 56.) the angular velocity which A, B, C , generates in the system by their weight, is $\frac{-Se \times A}{s}$, $\frac{Su \times B}{s}$, $\frac{Sd \times C}{s}$; and the whole angular velocity generated by them all is $\frac{-Se \times A + Su \times B + Sd \times C}{s}$. Likewise the angular velocity which any particle p , situated

Se $\dot{c}$ t. VI. OSCILLATION, &c.

99

ated in O, generates in the system, by its weight, is $\frac{Sr \times p}{p \times SO^2}$ or $\frac{Sr}{SO^2}$ or $\frac{Sg}{SG \times SO}$, because of the similar

FIG.
81.

triangles SgG, SrO. But their vibrations, and every part of them, are performed alike; therefore their angular velocities must be every where equal; that is

$$\frac{-Se \times A + Su \times B + Sd \times C}{s} = \frac{Sg}{SG \times SO}; \text{ whence by re-}$$

$$\text{duction } SO = \frac{Sg}{SG} \times \frac{s}{-Se \times A + Su \times B + Sd \times C}. \text{ But (by}$$

$$\text{Pr 44.) } -Se \times A + Su \times B + Sd \times C = Sg \times \overline{A+B+C}.$$

Therefore the distance of the center of oscillation from

$$\text{the axis of motion, } SO = \frac{s}{SG \times \overline{A+B+C}} =$$

$$\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2 \mathcal{E}c.}{SG \times \overline{A+B+C}, \mathcal{E}c.}$$

$$= \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2, \mathcal{E}c.}{A \times Sa + B \times Sb + C \times SC, \mathcal{E}c.} \text{ Where}$$

$A \times SA, B \times Sb, \&c.$ must be negative, when $a, b, \&c.$ lye on the contrary side of S. And since all these quantities are the same at all elevations of the axis SO; therefore the point O is rightly found; and the system has such a point as is required. Likewise it appears by Cor. 1. of the last Prop. that the center of oscillation is the same with the center of percussion.

Cor. 1. If p be any particle of a body, d its distance from S, the axis of motion; G, O the centers of gravity and oscillation. Then the distance of the center of oscillation of the body from the axis of motion, $SO =$

$$\frac{\text{sum of all the } p \times dd.}{SG \times \text{Body}}.$$

Cor. 2. If the bodies A, B, C, be large; and therefore the center of oscillation of each, not in the center of gravity. Let $d, e, f,$ be the respective distances of their

H 2

centers

FIG. 81. *tenters of gravity, and p, q, r of their centers of oscillation, from S . then will the distance of the center of oscillation from S the axis of motion,*

$$SO = \frac{dpA + eqB + frC}{A \times Sa + B \times Sb + C \times Sc} = \frac{dpA + eqB + frC}{SG \times A + B + C}.$$

For let a, b, c be any particles in A, B, C ; and x, y, z their distances from S respectively. Then by this Prop. $SO = \frac{\text{sum } x^2a + \text{sum } yyb + \text{sum } zzc}{SG \times A + B + C}$. But

$$\frac{\text{sum } xxa}{dA} = p, \text{ or } \text{sum } xxa = dpA, \text{ and } \text{sum } yyb = eqB, \text{ and } \text{sum } zzc = frC; \text{ and } SG \times \overline{A+B+C} = Sa \times A + Sb \times B + Sc \times C.$$

Cor. 3. *To find the center of oscillation of an irregular body; suspend it at the given point, and hang up a simple pendulum of such a length, that making them both vibrate, they may keep time together. Then the length of this pendulum is equal to the distance of the center of suspension from the center of oscillation of the body.*

Cor. 4. *What has been demonstrated in the last Prop. and cor. 1, 2, 3, 4. for the center of percussion; holds equally true for the center of oscillation.*

S C H O L.

In very small bodies, or any bodies oscillating at a great distance from the axis of motion, the center of oscillation or percussion is in or very near the center of gravity. And the reason why the center of oscillation or percussion is not always in the center of gravity; is because the body in vibrating is made to turn about a center. But if it be so contrived as always to move parallel to itself; without any circular motion;

Sect. VI. OSCILLATION, &c.

tion; the centers of gravity, of oscillation and percussion will be the same.

108

FIG.

81.

The distance of the centers of oscillation and percussion, from the axis of motion, as calculated by Cor. 1. is as follows. Where the axis of motion is at the vertex and in the plane of the figure.

1. In a right line, parallelogram, and small cylinder, $\frac{2}{3}$ the axis of the figure.
2. In a triangle, $\frac{3}{4}$ the axis.
3. In the plane of a circle, $\frac{5}{4}$ the radius.
4. In the parabola, $\frac{5}{7}$ the axis.
5. Pyramid and cone, $\frac{4}{5}$ axis, nearly.
6. In a sphere, r = radius, d = distance of the axis of motion from its center. Then the distance of the center of oscillation from the axis of motion is $d + \frac{2rr}{5d}$.

P R O P. LIX.

To find the center of gyration of a system of bodies: or such a point O, as that a given force, acting at a certain place, will in the same time, generate the same angular velocity, in the system, about an axis SR; as as if the whole system was placed in O.

82.

Draw the plane PQS perp. to the axis of rotation SR ; and let SA, SB, SC be the nearest distances of the bodies A, B, C from the axis SR ; and let the force f act at P in direction PQ perpendicular to PS . Then (by Cor. 2. Pr. 56.) the angular velocity generated

H 3

in

FIG. in the system by the force f will be as

82. $\frac{SP \times f}{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}$, and in the system placed in
 O, it will be $\frac{SP \times f}{A + B + C \times SO^2}$; and if these velocities
 be made equal, we shall have $SO^2 =$
 $\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{A + B + C}$. Whence the distance
 of the center of gyration O from the axis of motion at
 S, that is, $SO = \sqrt{\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{A + B + C}}$.

83. *Cor. 1. Let b = quantity of matter in any body ABRCS, p any particle, $d = ap$, its distance from the axis of rotation SR: then the square of the distance of the center of gyration from the axis of motion, that is $SC^2 = \frac{\text{sum of all the } ddp.}{b}$.*

82. *Cor. 2. If any part of the system be supposed to be placed in the center of gyration of that particular part; the center of gyration of the whole system will continue the same as before.*

For by this Prop. the same degree of force which moved this part of the system before, along with the rest; will move it now without any alteration. And therefore if each part of the system be collected into its proper center of gyration; the center of gyration of the whole will continue the same.

Cor. 3. If a circle be described from G, the center of gravity of the system, and the axis of rotation be made to pass through any point S in its periphery; the distance of the center of gyration from that point will always be the same.

For

For (by Cor. 6. Pr. 44.) the quantity $A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2$ will be given.

Cor. 4. Let D , G be the distances of the centers of oscillation and gyration from S . then will $G = \sqrt{D \times SG}$.

It follows from this and the last Prop.

SCHOL.

It is the same thing on whatever side of the axis of rotation SR , the point O or center of gyration be taken, provided it be at its proper distance. By a computation from Cor. 1. the distance of the center of gyration from the axis of rotation in the following bodies will be

1. In a *right line* or *small cylinder* (revolving about the end) $SO = \text{length} \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{3}}$.
2. The *plane* of a *circle*, or *cylinder* (revolving about the axis) $SO = \text{radius} \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$.
3. The *periphery* of a *circle* (about the diameter) $SO = \text{radius} \times \sqrt{\frac{1}{2}}$.
4. The *plane* of a *circle* (about the diameter) $SO = \frac{1}{2} \text{ radius}$.
5. The *surface* of a *sphere* (about the diameter) $SO = \text{rad.} \times \sqrt{\frac{2}{5}}$.
6. A *globe* (revolving about the diameter) $SO = \text{radius} \times \sqrt{\frac{2}{5}}$.
7. In a *cone* (about the axis) $SO = \text{radius} \times \sqrt{\frac{2}{5}}$.

FIG.
82.

If the periphery of a circle revolve about an axis in the center, perpendicular to its plane; it is the same thing as if all the matter was collected into any one point in that periphery. And the plane of a circle of double the matter of this periphery, and the same diameter, will in an equal time acquire the same angular velocity.

If the matter of any gyrating body were actually to be placed in its center of gyration; it ought either to be disposed of in the circumference of a circle, whose radius is SO , or else into two points O , diametrically opposite, equal and equidistant from S . For by this means the center of motion S , will be in the center of gravity. And the body will revolve without any lateral force towards any side.

P R O P. LX.

84. *If EF be any body at rest in free space, G its center of gravity, the points S , O , one the center of suspension, the other of percussion: And if a moving body B strike directly against the point O , the motion generated in the body EF by the stroke shall be such; that in the time that the body makes one revolution about its center of gravity G , the center of gravity will move forward a space equal to the circumference of a circle whose radius is SG .*

90. Let the body vibrate about the point S , and in a very small time, from the position SGO , come into the position Sgd . Now the arches Gg , Od will be as the velocities of the points G , O , vibrating about S ; therefore when it comes into the position SGO , if it were disengaged from the point S ; the center of gravity G would still move forward with the same velocity Gg ; and the body, instead of revolving about S , would (by Cor. 1. Pr. 49.)

49.) revolve about G with the same angular motion as before. Therefore if rGo be drawn parallel to Sgd , Gg will represent the velocity of G , and Oo the velocity of O about G . And because Oo , Gg are very small similar arches, therefore their circumferences will be described in equal times; that is, in the time that O , or the body itself, makes one revolution about G ; the point G will advance forward a space, equal to the circumference of a circle whose radius is SG .

FIG.
84.

Now this is the motion acquired by revolving about S . But (by Pr. 57.) if a body so revolving, strikes an immoveable object at O ; both the progressive and circular motion will be destroyed; and the body will be at rest. It is evident on the contrary, that if a moving body strike the body at rest in the point O , with the same force; the same motion will be restored again; and is the same as above described.

Cor. 1. At the beginning of the motion, and also after every revolution of the body, when the line SGO comes into its original position, so as to be perpendicular to the line of direction OB ; the point S will be at rest for a moment.

For in this position, it will be (by this Prop.) as velocity of O about G : velocity of G :: OG : GS . And by composition, vel. O about G + vel. G that is absolute vel. O : absolute vel. G :: OG + GS or OS : GS . Therefore since the absolute velocities of O and G are directly as their distances from S ; it follows that the point S is at rest.

Cor. 2. Let a body $A = \frac{SG}{SO} \times \text{body } EF$. And if V be the velocity which the body A would receive by the direct stroke of B : then I say the absolute velocity of the body

FIG. 84. *body EF (or of its center of gravity G), which it receives by B impinging at O, will be $\frac{SG}{SO} V$.*

For let p be any particle of the body EF , and Sp its distance from S . then (by Cor. 3. Pr. 56) if a body $= \frac{\text{Sum of all } Sp^2 \times p}{SO^2}$ be placed in O , it will receive the same angular velocity, by the stroke, about S at rest; as the body EF when struck in O . But (by Cor. 1. Pr. 58.) $\text{sum } Sp^2 \times p = SO \times SG \times \text{body } EF$; whence the body $\frac{SO \times SG \times \text{body } EF}{SO^2}$ or A , placed in O , receives the same angular velocity about S , as the point O of the body EF . but $\text{vel. of } O \text{ or } A : \text{vel. } G :: SO : SG$: for at the beginning of the motion, S is at rest, by Cor. 1.

Cor. 3. *The velocity lost in B by the stroke will be $\frac{\text{body } EF}{\text{body } B} \times \frac{SG}{SO} V$.*

For the sum of the motions of all the bodies, after the stroke, is the same as the motion of B before it. By Prop. X.

S C H O L.

The point S is by some called the *spontaneous center of rotation*; because the body (or system of bodies) at the beginning of the motion, moves as it were of its own accord, or without any compulsion, about the center S at rest.

P R O P.

P R O P. LXI.

FIG.

85.

Let DE be any body, C its center of gravity; and if from the center C , the circle BFS be described; and if about BFS as an axis, a cord $ASBFS$, be wound, and the end fixed at A . And if O be the center of oscillation in respect to the center of suspension S . Then if the body descend by a rotation round the axis BFS , by unwinding the cord $ASBF$, &c. Then I say the space descended by the whirling body DE , is to the space descended in the same time, by a body falling freely, as SC to SO .

Through the point of contact S and the center of gravity C , draw the horizontal line SCO . Then (by Pr. 58.) the angular velocity of the body about the point of suspension S , at the beginning of the motion, will be the same as if the whole body was placed in O . But if a body was placed in O , its velocity generated at the beginning will be the same as of a body falling freely. Therefore drawing Sco infinitely near SCO , and the small arches Oo , Cc : then the velocity of O , is to the velocity of the center of gravity C , as Oo to Cc , or as SO to SC ; that is the velocity generated by a body falling freely, is to the velocity of the descending body DE , as SO to SC . Now since the points S and O are always in the horizontal line SCO , and the radius SC is given, and likewise (by Cor. 4. Pr. 57.) the distance CO . therefore the velocities of O and C in any times will always be as SO to SC : that is the velocity of a body descending freely, is to the velocity of the whirling body DE , always in the ratio of SO to SC . And therefore (by Prop. 6) the spaces described are in the same ratio.

Cor. 1. The weight of the body DE , is to the tension of the cord AS ; as SO to CO .

For

FIG.

85.

For let the body be supported at O ; then since C is the center of gravity, therefore (by Cor. Pr. 50. and Cor. 5. Pr. 19.) the weight DE is to the pressure at S , as SO to CO . Now if the point O be let go, the force acting at O will generate a motion about S , whilst the pressure at S , and consequently the tension of the cord is neither increased nor decreased, but remains the same as before.

Cor. 2. If a circular body as BFS runs down an inclined plane, whilst the thread ASB unfolds; or if a round body rowl down an inclined plane, and by its friction be hindered from sliding: The space it describes in any time, is to the space described by a body sliding down freely without friction; as SC to SO .

For the forces that generate their motions are both decreased, in the same ratio, that is as the absolute gravity to the relative gravity upon the plane; therefore the spaces described will remain in the same ratio of SC to SO . And in the rolling body, the friction supplies the place of the cord, the same as if it had teeth.

Cor. 3. This motion of the body DE by rotation, is a motion uniformly accelerated. And the tension of the cord is always the same, thro' the whole descent.

S C H O L.

86

Let W = weight of a body, S = space described by a body falling freely. Then the spaces described by rotation or whirling, in the following bodies, as SBF , in the same time are,

1. In the circumference of a circle SBF , or surface of a cylinder, space = $\frac{1}{2} S$. tension of the string = $\frac{1}{2} W$.

2. In

Se&t. VI. OSCILLATION, &c.

109

2. In the circumference of a circle SBF , without weight, and the weight be in the center C ; space $= S$, tension of the string $= o$.

FIG.
86.

3. In the plane of circle SBF , or a cylinder; space $= \frac{2}{3} S$, and the tension of the string $AS = \frac{1}{3} W$.

4. In the surface of a sphere SBF ; space $= \frac{2}{3} S$, and the tension of the string $AS = \frac{2}{3} W$.

5. In a sphere SBF , space $= \frac{2}{3} S$, and the tension of the thread $= \frac{2}{3} W$.



SECT.

S E C T. VII.

The quantity and direction of the pressure of beams of timber, by their weight; and the forces necessary to sustain them.

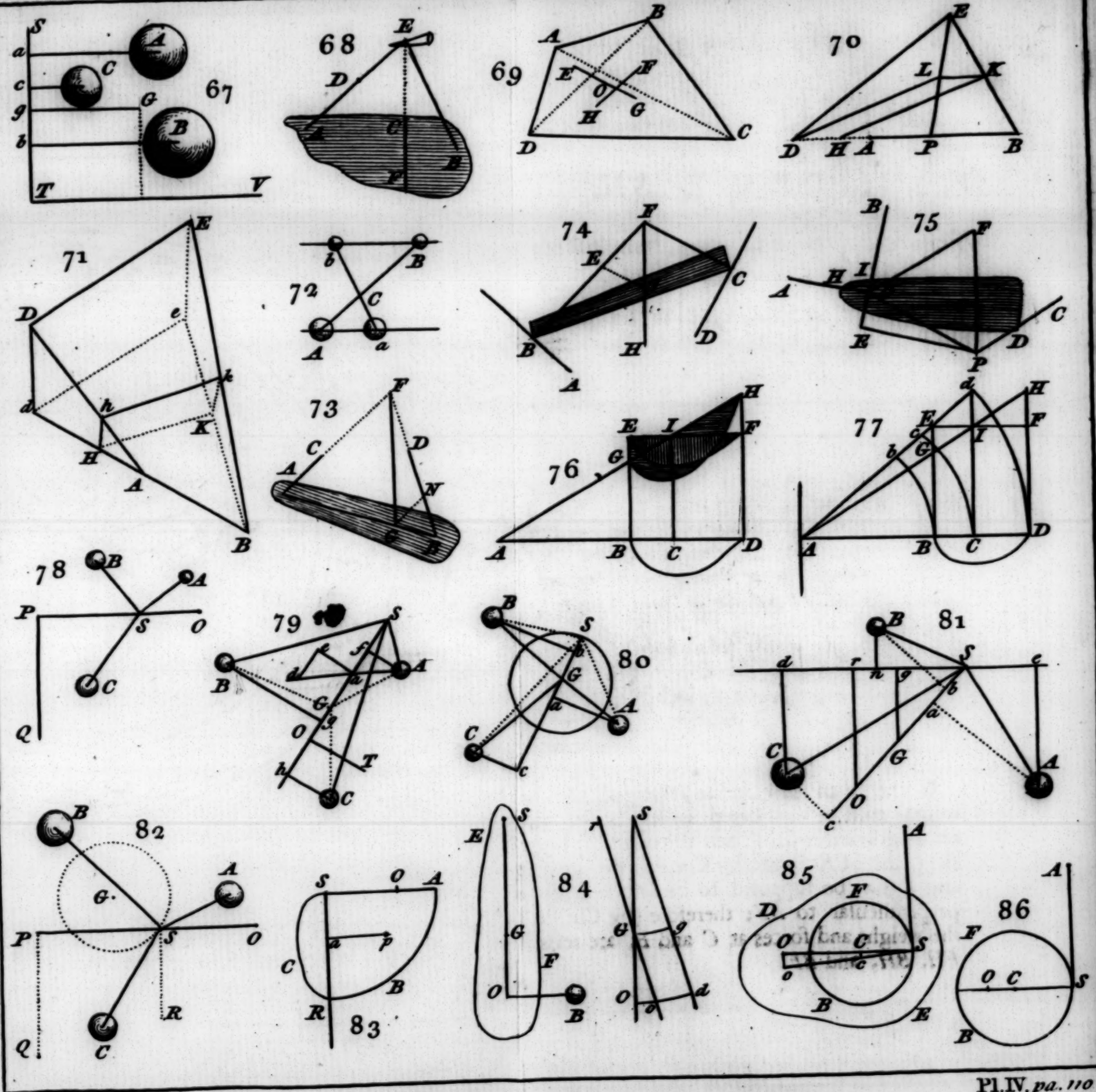
P R O P. LXII.

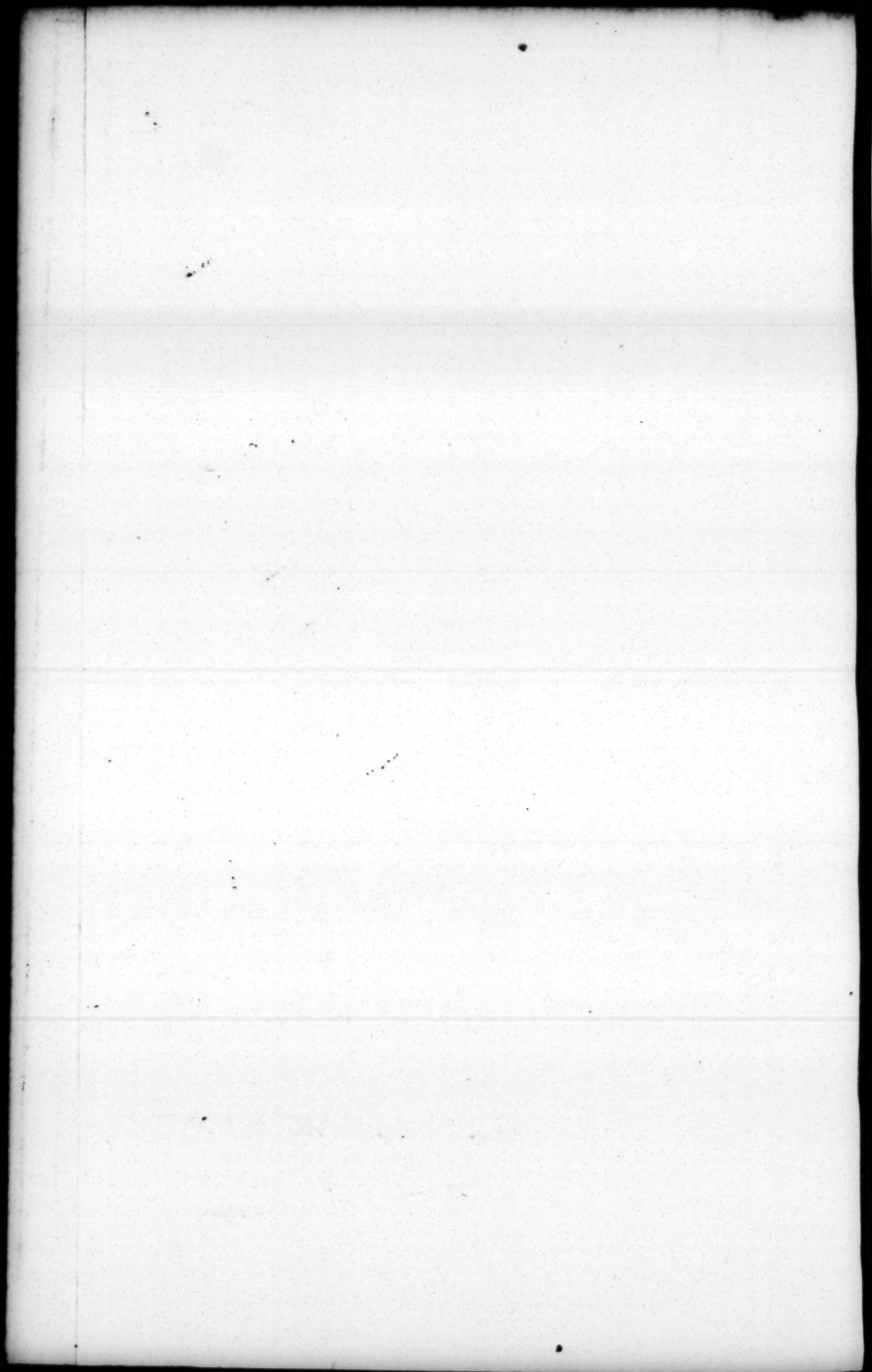
37. *If a beam of timber, be supported at C and B, lying upon the wall ACE, with one end. And if G be the center of gravity of the whole weight sustained: and the line FGH be drawn perpendicular to the horizon, and CF and BH to CB; and BF drawn; I say*

*the weight of the whole body } FH
pressure at the top C } BH
Thrust or pressure at the base B } FB,
are respectively as } and in these several
directions.*

If the beam support any weight, the beam and weight must be considered as one body, whose center of gravity is G. Then the end C is supported by the plane BCE; and (by Cor. 3. Pr. 53.) the other end B may be supposed to be sustained by a plane, perpendicular to BF; therefore (by Cor. 1. Pr. 53.) the weight and forces at C and B, are respectively as FH, BH, and BF.

Cor.





S

th

a

C

L

I

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

C

FIG.
87.

Cor. 1. Produce FB towards Q , then BQ is the direction of the pressure at B . And the pressure at B in directions BQ , FD , DB ; are as FB , FD , DB .

Cor. 2. Draw Dr perpendicular to BC , and draw CD : then the weight, pressure at top, direct pressure at bottom, and horizontal pressure at bottom; are respectively as CB , BD , DC and Dr .

For since the angles BCF , BDF are right, a circle described upon the diameter BF , will pass through C , D . Therefore $\angle BCD = BFD$ standing on the same arch BD . And because the $\angle GBH$ and $\angle s$ at D are right, $BHF = CBD$; therefore the triangles FHB and CBD are similar, and the figure $BHDF$ similar to the figure $DBrC$, whence $FH : BH : BF : BD ::$ are as $CB : BD : DC :$ and Dr .

Cor. 3. All this holds true for any force instead of gravity, acting in direction GD .

PROP. LXIII.

If BC be any beam, bearing any weight, G the center of gravity of the whole. And if it lean against the perpendicular wall CA , and be supported in that position: draw BA , CF parallel, and FGD perpendicular to the horizon; and draw FB . Then

the whole weight	} and in the same directions.
pressure at the top C	
thrust or pressure at the bottom B	
are respectively as	
	FD
	BD
	FB

For the end C is sustained by the plane AC ; and if the end B be supposed to be sustained by a plane perpendicular to FB . Then (by Cor. 1. Pr. 53.) the weight,

88. weight, and pressure at top and bottom; are as DF , DB , FB . If you suppose the end B is not sustained by a plane perpendicular to FB , the body won't be supported at all; by Cor. 2. Pr. 53.

Cor. 1. If FB be produced to Q ; then BQ ; is the direction of the pressure at B . And the perpendicular pressure at B (FD), is equal to the weight; and the horizontal pressure at B (BD) is equal to the pressure against C .

P R O P. LXIV.

89. If a heavy beam or one bearing a weight, be sustained at C , and moveable about a point C ; whilst the other end B lies upon the wall BE . And if HGF be drawn through the center of gravity G , perpendicular to the horizon; and BF , CH perp. to BC ; and CF be drawn: then

the whole weight } HF
 pressure at B } HC
 force acting at C } CF ,
 are respectively as } and in these directions.

For the end B is sustained by the plane CB ; and (by Cor. 2. Pr. 53.) the end C may be supposed to be sustained by a plane perp. to FC ; or by a cord in direction CF . Then since HC is parallel to BF ; the weight, force at C , pressure at B ; are respectively as HF , CF , HC ; by Cor. 1. Pr. 52. or Cor. 1. Pr. 53.

Cor. But if instead of lying upon the inclined plane at B , the end B laid upon the horizontal plane AB ; then the weight, the pressure at B and C , are respectively as BC , GC , and BG : And in this case there is no lateral pressure.

For BF will be perpendicular to BA , and parallel to

to HF , and consequently CF is also parallel to HF , therefore (by Cor. 5. Pr. 19.) the forces at C , G , B are as BG , BC , and CG . FIG. 89.

P R O P. LXV.

If a heavy beam BC , whose center of gravity is G , be supported upon two posts BA , CD ; and be moveable about the points, A , B , C , D . And if AB , DC produced meet in any point H , of the line GF , drawn perpendicular to the horizon. And if from any point F , in the line GF , FE be drawn parallel to AB ; I say 90.

the whole weight	}	HF .
pressure at C		HE
Thrust or pressure at B		EF ,
are respectively as		and in these directions.

For the points A , B , C , D being in a plane perp. to the horizon; the body may be supposed to be supported by two planes at B , C , perpendicular to AB , DC ; or by two ropes BH , CH . And in either case the weight in direction HG , the pressure at B , C in directions HB , HC , are as HF , EF , and HE .

Cor. Hence, whether a body be sustained by two ropes BH , CH ; or by two posts AB , CD ; or by two planes perpendicular to BA , CD : The body can then only be at rest, when the plumb line HGF passes through G , the center of gravity of the whole weight sustained. or which is the same thing, when AB , DC intersect in the plumb line HGF passing through the center of gravity.

PRESSURE OF

PROP. LXVI.

If several beams AB , BC , CD , &c. be joined together at B , C , D , &c. and moveable about the points A , B , C , &c. be placed in a vertical plane, the points A , F , being fixt, and through B , C , D , drawing ri , sm , ip , perpendicular to the horizon. And if several weights be laid on the angles B , C , D , &c. So that the weight on any angle C may be as $\frac{S.BCD}{S.mCB \times S.mCD}$. Then all the beams will be kept in equilibrio by these weights.

Produce DC to r . then (by Cor. 2. Pr. 8.) $S. \angle ABC : S. \angle ABr :: \text{weight } B : \text{force in direction } BC = \frac{B \times S.ABr}{S.ABC}$: and $S. BeD : S.DCs :: \text{weight} : \text{force in}$

direct. $CB = \frac{C \times S.DCs}{S.BCD}$, which, to preserve the equilibrium, must be equal to the force in direction BC , that is $\frac{B \times S.ABr}{S.ABC} = \frac{C \times S.DCs}{S.BCD}$: whence $B : C ::$

$\frac{S.ABC}{S.ABr} : \frac{S.BCD}{S.DCs}$ and by the same way of reasoning, $C : D :: \frac{S.BCD}{S.BCs} : \frac{S.CDE}{S.EDt}$. Therefore ex equo,

weight $B : \text{weight } D ::$

$$\frac{\frac{S.ABC}{S.ABr \times S.BCs}}{\frac{S.ABC}{S.ABi \times S.CBi}} : \frac{\frac{S.CDE}{S.DCs \times S.EDt}}{\frac{S.CDE}{S.CDp \times S.EDp}} ::$$

Cor. 1. Produce CD , so that Dw may be equal to Cr , and draw wx parallel to Dp , cutting DE in x . Then the weight C , the forces in directions CB , and CD ; are as rB , CB and Cr respectively. And weight C is to the weight D , as Br to wx .

Cor.

Cor. 2. The force or thrust at C in direction CB, or at B in direction BC; is as the secant of the elevation of the line BC above the horizon.

For, force in direction CB : force in direction CD :: CB : Cr :: S. CrB or rCm or sCD : rBC :: cos. elevation of CD : cos. elevation of CB :: sec. elevation of CB : sec. elevation of CD : because the secants are reciprocally as the cosines.

Cor. 3. Draw Cp, Dm parallel to DE. CB; then the weights on C and D to preserve the equilibrium, will be as Cm to Dp. And therefore if all the weights are given and the position of two lines CD, DE, then the positions of all the rest CB, BA, &c. will be successively found.

For let the force in direction CD or DC be CD; then Cp is the force in direction DE; and Dm, in direction CB. And Dp or the weight D, is the force compounded of DC, Cp : And Cm or the weight C is the force compounded of CD, Dm : by Cor. 2. Pr. 7.

Cor. 4. If the weights lye not on the angles B, C, D, &c. let the places of their centers of gravity be at g, h, k, l. And let g, h, k, l, also express their weights.

And take the weight $B = \frac{Ag}{AB} g + \frac{bC}{BC} b$, $C = \frac{Bb}{BC} b + \frac{kD}{CD} k$, $D = \frac{Ck}{CD} k + \frac{lE}{DE} l$ &c. Then B, C, D, &c. will be the weights lying upon the respective angles.

This is evident by Cor. 5. Pr. 19.

Cor. 5. If the weights were to act upwards in the directions mC, pD, &c. or which is the same thing, if the figure A, B, C, D, E, F was turned upside down, and the weights remain the same, and the points A, F

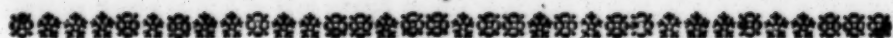
- FIG. *be fixed, as before. All the angles at B, C, D &c. and*
 91. *consequently the whole figure will remain the same as before: And that whether the lines AB, BC, CD &c. be flexible or inflexible, cords or timbers.*

This will easily appear by the demonstration of the Prop. For the ratio of the forces at any angle C , will be the same, whether they act towards the point C or from it; by Prop. 8. That is, it will be the same thing whether the weight at any angle C , acts in direction Cm or Cs . And as the forces were supposed before to thrust against C , the same forces now do pull from it.

S C H O L I U M.

92. If $DABF$ be a semicircle, whose diameter is DF , draw AG perpendicular to DF . Then the force or weight at any place A , to preserve the equilibrium, will be reciprocally as AG , or directly as the cube of the secant of the arch BA .

Likewise it follows from Cor. 5. That if any cords of equal lengths be stretched to the same degree of curvature, the stretching forces will be as the weights of the cords.



S E C T. VIII.

The strength of beams of timber in all positions; and their stress, by any weights acting upon them, or by any forces applied to them.

P R O P. LXVII.

The lateral strength of any piece of timber, in any place whose section is a rectangle; is directly as the breadth and square of the depth. 93.

Let BD be any beam, placed horizontally, and fixed at the end BC . And let AFG be the perpendicular section. Divide the depth AF into an infinite number of equal parts at $a, b, c, d, \&c.$ whose number is AF or n ; through which suppose lines drawn parallel to FG . And let any force be applied at P in direction DP , to break the beam at AF : Then since the strength of the timber is nothing but the force by which the parts of the timber at $a, b, c, \&c.$ cohere together: The breaking the timber is nothing but overcoming this force, and separating the parts at a, b, c . Suppose $1 =$ force of cohesion of any of the parts $Aa, ab, bc, \&c.$ And imagine $\mathcal{Q}Aa, \mathcal{Q}Ab, \mathcal{Q}Ac, \&c.$ so many bended leavers whose fulcrum is at A . And let us see what will be the sum of all the forces applied at $\mathcal{Q}$ to break the timber at A . Now (by Cor. 1. Pr. 19.) the power applied at $\mathcal{Q}$ to equal

FIG. or overcome the resistances at $A, a, b, c, \&c.$ will be

93. $\frac{0}{AQ}, \frac{Aa}{AQ}, \frac{Ab}{AQ}, \frac{Ac}{AQ}, \frac{Ad}{AQ} \&c.$ till $\frac{AF}{AQ}$, that is as

$\frac{0}{AQ}, \frac{1}{AQ}, \frac{2}{AQ}, \frac{3}{AQ}, \dots \frac{n}{AQ}$. Therefore the ef-

fect of all the forces applied to Q , or the whole strength

of the beam at A , will be $\frac{0+1+2+3+\dots+n}{AQ}$ or

$\frac{nn}{2AQ}$, that is, because AQ is given, as nn or AF^2 .

Now if the breadth FG be increased in any proportion; it is evident the strength of every Part $Aa, ab, \&c.$ will be increased in the same proportion; and therefore the absolute lateral strength will be as $AF^2 \times FG$.

Cor. 1. In square timber, the lateral strength is as the cube of the breadth or depth.

Cor. 2. And in general, the lateral strength of any pieces of timber, whose sections are similar figures, are as the cubes of the similar sides of the sections.

Cor. 3. And in any pieces of timber, whose sections are such figures, that the correspondent ordinates, parallel to the horizon, are proportional; the strengths are as the breadths and squares of the depths; or as the sections multiplied by the depths.

SCHOL.

What is here said of timber, is true of any homogeneous bodies whatever sort of matter they are of. But the absolute strength of any beam, leaver, rope, &c. when drawn in direction of its length, will be as the section of it. For every part does in this case bear an equal stretch; and the sum of all the parts is equal to the whole, and that is as the section.

PROP.

The strength of a Tube or hollow cane AB, to that of a solid one CD; is as the section of the tube (excluding the hollow) to the section of the solid cane, and the diameter of the tube to the diameter of the solid cane, nearly.

For by Cor. 2. of the last Prop. the strength of the solid cylinder BF is AF^3 , and the strength of the inner solid cylinder, whose fulcrum is at G , is EG^3 , and whose fulcrum is at F is greater than EG^3 and less than EF^3 , and is nearly $EG + \frac{1}{2}GF^3 =$

$AF - \frac{1}{2}AE^3$, that is $AF^3 - \frac{9}{2}AF^2 \times AE$ nearly. therefore the strength of the tube $AFGE$, is the difference of the strength of these cylinders, that is, $AF^3 - AF^3 + \frac{9}{2}AF^2 \times AE$ or $\frac{9}{2}AF^2 \times AE$. Likewise the strength of the solid cylinder DCH is CH^3 . therefore the strength of the tube FB : strength of the cylinder $HD :: \frac{9}{2}AF^2 \times AE : CH^3$. but the section of the tube is as $AF^2 - EG^2$ or $AF^2 - AF - 2AE^2 = 4AF \times AE$ nearly, whence strength of the tube FB : strength of the cylinder $HD :: \frac{9}{2}AF \times AE : CH \times CH^2 :: 4AF \times AE \times 1\frac{1}{8}AF : CH^3 \times CH ::$ section of the tube $\times 1\frac{1}{8}$ its diameter : section of the cylinder $\times$ its diameter :: sect. tube $\times$ diameter : sect. cylinder $\times$ diameter nearly.

Otherwise.

Let the area of the ring $AEGF$ be disposed into another ring whose diameter is less than AF ; then since every particle of it acts at a less distance from the fulcrum F , its strength will be less in proportion; that is, its strength will be as the diameter of the ring. And when the ring is so far diminished as to become an entire circle, the proportion of their strength will not differ far from the proportion of their diameters. Let the diameter of that circle be R ;

- FIG. 94. then strength of the ring or tube : strength of an equal circle :: $AF : R$. And the strength of R : to that of CH :: $R^3 : CH^3$. Therefore ex equo, strength of the tube BF : strength of the cylinder HD :: $AF \times R^3 : R \times CH^3$:: $AF \times R^2 : CH \times CH^2$:: $AF \times \text{area ring} : CH \times \text{area of the circle } CH$.

Cor. Hence the strength of different tubes are as their sections, and diameters, nearly.

P R O P. LXIX.

95. *If any force be applied laterally to a leaver, or beam; the stress upon any place, is directly as the force, and its distance from that place.*

For suppose PAF to be a bended leaver. It is evident the greater the power at P , the greater force is applied at F to separate the parts of the wood. Also the greater the distance AP , the greater power has any given force applied at P , to overcome the cohesion of the wood at F . And therefore the whole stress depends on both.

96. *Cor. 1. If two equal weights lye upon the middle of two beams, or upon any other similar places C ; the stress in these places, will be as the lengths of the beams.*

For if C be the middle point; then A bears half the weight; therefore the stress at C is as $AC \times \frac{1}{2}$ weight, that is, because half the weight, or the force acting at A is given; therefore the stress is as AC or half AB , and therefore as AB . And if C be in any other similar situation in both beams, the same thing will follow.

Cor. 2. If two beams bear two weights proportional to their

their lengths and in a like situation; the stress upon each will be as the square of its length.

FIG.

96.

Cor. 3. And if two beams bear two weights reciprocally as their lengths, in a similar situation; the stress where the weights lie, is equal in both.

PROP. LXX.

Let AB be any beam of a given length, supported at A and B ; and any given weight either suspended at any point C , or equally diffused through the whole length of the beam AB : I say in either case, the stress of the beam in C , is as the rectangle $AC \times CB$.

97.

CASE I.

Let the given weight be represented by the given length of the lever AB . Then (by Cor. 5. Pr. 19.) the weight at A , and the reaction equal thereto, will be CB . And by the last Prop. the stress at C will be as the force acting at $A \times$ distance AC , that is, $AC \times CB$.

CASE II.

Let AB be divided into an infinite number n of equal parts, each $= 1$. then as AB represents the whole weight, 1 will be the weight supported upon 1 part of the beam, let it rest at p ; then $\frac{Ap}{AB} =$ its pressure on B . Therefore (by the last Prop.) the stress at p is $\frac{Ap \times pB}{AB}$, and the stress at C is $\frac{Ap \times BC}{AB}$, arising from the weight at p . Consequently the stress at C arising from the sum of all the weights between A and C , will be $\frac{0 + 1 + 2 + 3 \dots AC}{AB} \times BC$; that is, (because AC is the number of them) $\frac{AC^2 \times BC}{2AB}$. And by a like reasoning, the stress at C , arising from the whole

FIG. 97. whole weight between B and C , will be $\frac{CB^2 \times AC}{2AB}$.

consequently the whole stress at C is

$$\frac{AC^2 \times BC + CB^2 \times AC}{2AB} = \frac{AC + CB}{2AB} \times AC \times CB = \frac{AC \times CB}{2}.$$

Cor. 1. The greatest stress of a beam is in the middle, the weight being either suspended there, or equally disposed over the whole length of the beam.

Cor. 2. The stress of the beam at any point p , by a weight applied to any other point C ; is as $Ap \times CB$.

For $AC \times CB$ is the stress at C , and (by Prop. last) $Ap \times CB$ will be the stress at p .

Cor. 3. The stress of the beam at any point C , by a weight suspended there; is double the stress of the beam at the same point C , by the same weight pressing uniformly on all parts of the beam.

For by case 1, the stress at C is $AC \times CB$; and by case 2, the stress at C is $\frac{AC \times CB}{2}$.

Cor. 4. The stress of a beam at any point C by a weight suspended there, is double to the stress at C , when the same weight is uniformly dispersed on all the parts of AC .

Cor. 5. If a weight press equally on all the parts of pC ; the stress at C , by that pressure, is to the stress at C , when suspended at C :: as $Ap + AC$, to $2AC$.

For (by Cor. 2.) the stress at C , by the weight 1 lying at p is $Ap \times CB$, and at C , is $AC \times CB$. Therefore

fore the whole stress at C, by the whole weight on all the points of pC, is the sum of all the $Ap \times CB =$

FIG.

97.

$$Ap + \overline{Ap+1} + \overline{Ap+2} \dots AC \times : CB = \frac{Ap+AC}{2} \times$$

$pC \times CB$. But the stress by the whole weight at C is $AC \times CB \times pC$; and the former is to the latter, as

$$\frac{Ap+AC}{2} \text{ to } AC.$$

Cor. 6. If a weight press equally on all the parts of Ap ; the stress at any point C by that weight, is to the stress at C if suspended there :: as Ap to $2AC$.

For the stress at C by all the weight on Ap , is

$$0 + 1 + 2 \dots Ap \times CB = \frac{Ap^2}{2} \times CB. \text{ And the stress}$$

by the weight Ap at C, is $AC \times CB \times Ap$.

Cor. 7. The stress at p by a weight at C; is equal to the stress at C, by the same weight at p.

P R O P. LXXI.

If CD be a prominent beam, fixt horizontally at the end C, as in a wall; and if a weight, proportional to the length of the beam, be dispersed uniformly on all parts of the beam. The stress at any point F, will be as DF^2 , the square of the distance from the extremity.

98.

For let FD be divided into an infinite number of equal parts at p, q, r, s, &c. and let each be = 1, and sustain the weight 1. then (by Pr. 69.) the stress at F, by the weights at F, p, q, r, &c. will be 1×0 , $1 \times Fp$, $1 \times Fq$, &c. or as 0, 1, 2, 3, &c. respectively: therefore the whole stress at C will be $0 + 1 + 2 + 3 \dots FD = \frac{FD^2}{2}$.

Cor. 1. Hence the stress at F, by any weight suspended at

STRENGTH AND STRESS

FIG. 98. *at D, will be double the stress at the same point F, when the same weight presses uniformly on all the parts between F and D.*

For (by Pr. 69.) the stress at F by the weight DF , is $DF \times DF$, or FD^2 .

Cor. 2. *The stress at the end BC, by the weight P, is the same as the stress upon the middle of a beam of twice the length DC, with twice the weight P laid on its middle; this beam being supported at both ends.*

For the stress now at C is the same as if DC was continued to the same length beyond C ; and a weight equal to P suspended at the end; and then the fulcrum C will be acted on with twice the weight P . And this is the same as if the beam was turned upside down, and twice the weight P laid on the middle C .

PROP. LXXII.

99.
100. *If there be two beams standing aslope, and bearing two weights upon them, either in the middle, or in any given situation, or equally diffused over the whole length of the beams: The stress upon them will be directly as the weights, and the lengths, and the cosines of elevation.*

For (by Cor. 1. Pr. 31.) the weight is to the pressure upon the plane, as radius to the cos. elevation. Therefore the pressure is as cos. elevation $\times$ weight: And this is the force acting against the beam. Therefore (by Pr. 68.) the stress will be as its length and this force; that is, as the length, the weight, and cos. elevation.

Cor. 1. *If the weights and length of the beams be the same:*

Sect. VIII. OF TIMBER.

125

same: the stress will be as the cosine of elevation; and therefore greatest when it lies horizontal.

FIG.

99.

100.

Cor. 2. If the beams lye horizontal, or at any equal inclinations; and the weight be as the length; then the stress is as the square of the length.

Cor. 3. If the weights are equal, on the horizontal beam AB, and the inclined one AC: and BC be perp. to AB: then the stress will be equal upon both.

99.

For the length $\times$ cos. elevation is the same in both, or $ACB \cos. A = AB \times \text{radius}$.

Cor. 4. But if the weights on the same beams be as their lengths; then the stress will also be as their lengths, AB and AC.

Cor. 5. And universally, the stress upon any point of a sloping beam, is as the rectangle of the segments, and the weight, and cos. inclination directly; and the length of the beam reciprocally.

For in the horizontal beam AB, if the weight W lie upon C, the pressure at A will be $\frac{CB}{AB} \times W$. and (by Prop. 69.) this pressure or force $\times$ distance AC, will be as the stress at C; that is, $\frac{AC \times CB}{AB} \times W$ is as the stress at C. And if the beam lie aslope, the stress (by Cor. 1. Pr. 31.) will then vary in proportion to the cos. elevation.

97.

PROP. LXXIII.

If any beam of timber be to support any weight, or pressure, or force acting laterally upon it; the breadth multiplied by the square of the depth, or in similar sections,

FIG.
87.

sections, the cube of the diameter, in every place; ought to be proportional to the length multiplied by the weight or force acting on it; or as the stress in that place. and the same is true of several different pieces of timber compared together.

For every several piece of timber, as well as every part of the same timber or beam, ought to have its strength proportioned to the weight, force, or pressure it is to sustain. And therefore the strength ought to be universally as the stress upon it. But (by Pr. 67.) the strength is as the breadth $\times$ square of the depth. And (by Pr. 69) the stress is as the weight or force $\times$ by the distance it acts at. And therefore these must be in an invariable ratio.

102. Cor. 1. If AEB be a prominent beam fixt at the end AE , and sustaining a weight at the other end B . And if the sections in all places be similar figures; and CD be the diameter in any place C ; then CB will be every where as CD^3 . And if ACB be a right line, EDB will be a cubic parabola. Therefore $\frac{2}{3}$ of such a beam may be cut away without any diminution of the strength.

But if the beam be bounded by two parallel planes, perpendicular to the horizon; then CB will be as CD^2 , and then EDB will be the common parabola. whence a third part of a beam may be thus cut away.

Cor. 2. But if a weight press uniformly on every part of AB ; and the sections in all points as C , be similar; then BC^2 will be every where as CD^3 ; and EDB a semi-cubical parabola.

101. But if the beam be bounded by parallel planes, perp. to the horizon; that BC will be as CD , and EDB a right line. here half a beam may be cut away, without losing any strength.

Cor.

Sect. VIII. OF TIMBER.

127

Cor. 3. If AB be a beam supported at both ends, and if it bear a weight in any variable point C , or uniformly on all the parts of it. And if all the sections be similar figures, and CD be the diameter in that place C ; then will CD^3 be every where as $AC \times CB$.

FIG.

103.

But if it be bounded by two parallel planes, perp. to the horizon; then will CD^2 be every where as $AC \times CB$, and therefore the curve ADB is an ellipsis, supposing AB a right line.

Cor. 4. But if a weight be placed at any given point P , and all sections are similar figures; and if CD be any diameter; then will BC be as CD^3 ; and AQ and BQ are two cubic parabolas.

104.

But if the beam be bounded by two parallel planes, perp. to the horizon; then BC is as CD^2 , and AQ and BQ are two common parabolas.

SCHOL.

All these things appear from the foregoing propositions, but it is here supposed that the timber is homogeneous and of the same goodness; otherwise a proper allowance must be made for the defect. And what is here said of pieces of timber, holds equally true of any other solid bodies, such as pieces of metal, stone, &c. And if pieces of timber or metal be cut into the figures mentioned in the foregoing corollaries, all the parts will be disposed to break together. And if a spring is to be made, its shape ought to be as in Cor. 1. And then every part will bear a stress proportional to its strength.

PROP.

FIG.

105.

P R O P. LXXIV.

If a weight A be supported upon the end of a crooked piece of timber ABD ; and from the ends, a line AB be drawn perpendicular to the horizon; and from the angle B , the line BC perp. to AD : The stress at B will be as the perpendicular BC .

For as the weight at A acts not in direction AB , but in direction AD ; therefore it is the same as if it were applied at the point C . But a force applied at C , has a greater power to break the timber at B , in proportion as the lever BC is longer. This force therefore, or the stress at B is as BC .

106. *Cor. 1. Hence if any two forces acting from or against one another, at the ends A, F , of any crooked beam $ABDEF$, and keep one another in equilibrio; and the line AF or the direction of the forces being drawn: The stress at any point, is as the perpendic. upon AF . So the stress at b is bc ; at B , BC ; at D , DI ; at E , EK : And at G, H , nothing.*

Cor. 2. Hence also; that the strength in any part b , may be proportional to the stress there; the breadth multiplied by the square of the depth, must be as the perpendicular bc : reckoning that the depth, which is in the plane passing through AF .

P R O P. LXXV.

107. *Having the length AB and weight W , of a cylinder*
 108. *or prism, that can just support the weight P at the end; to find the length of another beam FG , similar to the former, and of the same matter, that will just break with its own weight, or only support itself.*

Since

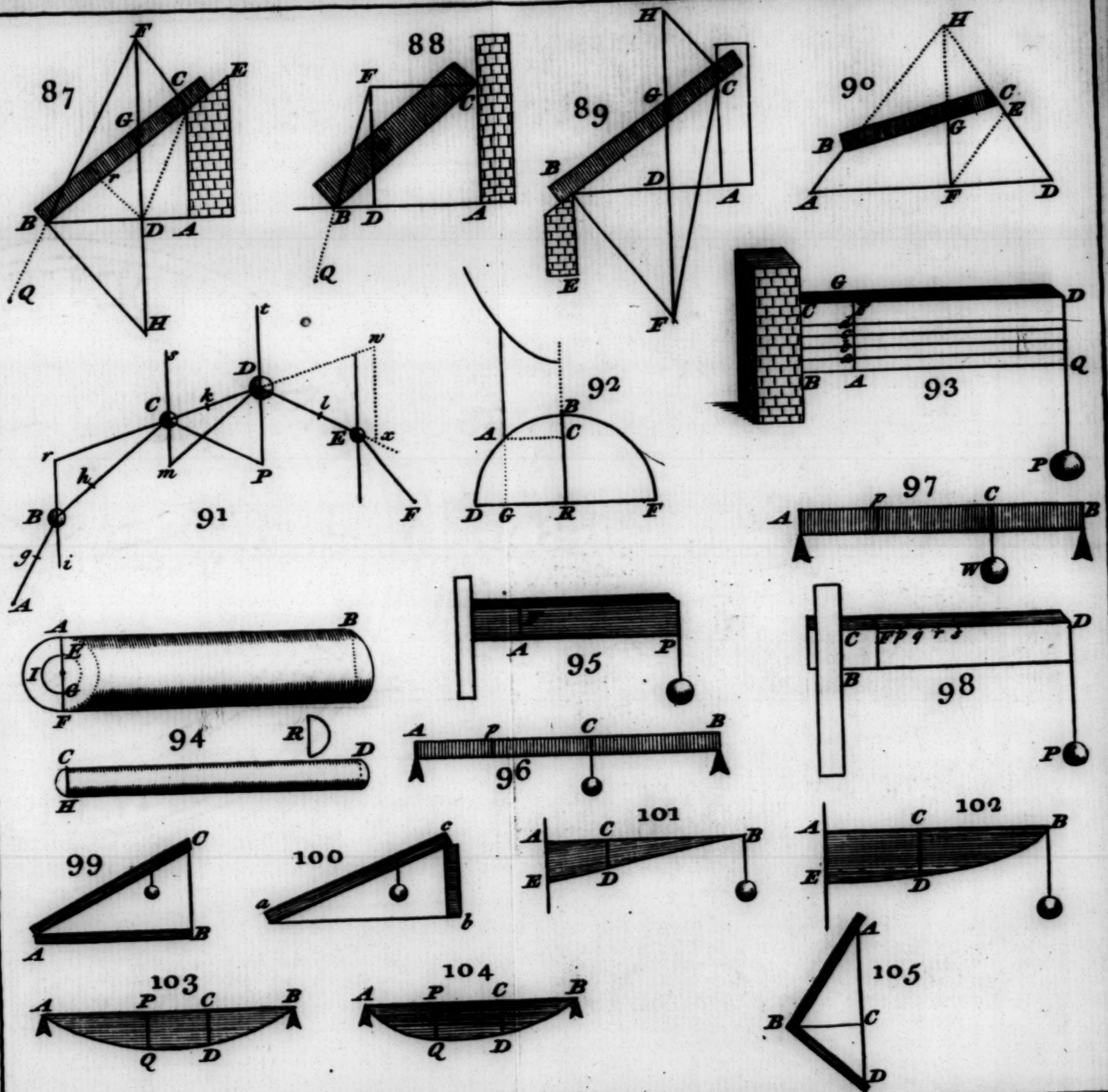
ed
B
be
B

nt
re
as
r-
e-

st
m
be
be
be
:

b,
i-
i-
ne

er
at
i-
ill
:
e



Se

ter

FO

by

is

X

be

th

$\frac{1}{2}$

W

on

::

v

g

t

h

e

i

FIG.

107.

108.

Since the weights of similar solids of the same matter are as the cubes of the lengths, it will be $AB^3 : W ::$

$FG^3 : \frac{FG^3}{AB^3} W =$ the weight of the beam GH . then

by Cor 2. Pr. 67.

The strength of the beam AB is AC^3 ; and of FG , is FH^3 . And by Prop. 69. the stress at A is $\frac{1}{2}W + P \times AB$.

And the stress at F is $\frac{FG^3}{2AB^3} W \times FG$. And since the beams are both supposed to break with these weights; therefore the strength must be as the stresses, that is,

$$\frac{1}{2}W + P \times AB : \frac{FG^4}{2AB^3} W (:: AC^3 : FH^3) :: AB^3 : FG^3.$$

$$\text{Whence } \frac{FG^4 \times W}{2} = FG^3 \times AB \times \frac{1}{2}W + P.$$

or $FG \times W = AB \times \frac{1}{2}W + 2P$, whence $W : W + 2P :: AB : FG$, the length required.

Cor. 1. If $eW = P$. then $FG = AB \times \frac{1}{1+2e}$.

Cor. 2. Hence there is one and only one beam that will just break by its own weight, or just sustain itself.

Cor. 3. The same Prop. will likewise hold good, in regard to two beams supported at both ends and breaking in the middle, by Cor. 3. Prop. 70.

Cor. 4. If the beam FG break by its own weight, a beam of twice the length of FG , and supported at both ends will also break by its own weight: or if one sustain itself, the other will.

For the stress is the same in both of them, by Cor. 3. Prop 70. and Cor. 1. Prop. 71. each of them being
K equal

FIG. equal to the stress of a beam, twice the length of FG , and suspended in the middle.

P R O P. LXXVI.

If any weight be laid on the beam AB , as at C , or any force applied to it at C ; the beam will be bent thro' a space CD proportional to the weight or force applied at C . And the resistance of the beam will be as the space it is bent through, nearly.

109. In order to find the law of resistance of beams of
 110. timber or such like bodies, against any weights laid upon them, or straining them; I took a piece of wood planed square; and supporting it at both ends A , B , I laid successively on the middle of it at C , 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8 pounds; and I found the middle point C to descend through the spaces 1, 2, 3, 4, 5, 6, 7, and 8, respectively. And repeating the same experiment with the weights 3, 6, 9 lb. they all descended through spaces, either accurately or very nearly as the numbers 1, 2, 3. I tried the same thing with springs of metal, and found the space through which they were bent, proportional to the weight suspended. I also tried several experiments of this kind with wires, hairs, and other elastic flexible bodies, by hanging weights at them: And I found that the increase of their lengths, by stretching, was, in each of them, proportional to the weights hung at them. Except when they were going to break, and then the increase was something greater. It may be observed that none of these bodies regained their first figure, when the weights were taken off, except well tempered springs; so that there are no natural bodies perfectly elastic. And even springs are observed by experience to grow weaker by often bending; and by remaining some time unbent, will recover part strength: And are something stronger in cold than in hot

Sect. VIII. OF TIMBER.

131

hot weather. But at any time a spring, and all such bodies observes this law, that they have the least resistance when least bent, and in all cases are nearly bent through spaces proportional to the weights or forces applied. And therefore I think this law is sufficiently established, that the resistance any of these bodies makes, is proportional to the space thro' which it is bent; or that it exerts a force proportional to the distance it is stretched to.

FIG.

109.

110.

The knowledge of this property of springy bodies is of great use in mechanics. For by this means a spring may be contrived to pull at all times with equal strength, as in the fusee of a watch. Or it may be made to draw in any proportion of strength required.

The action of a spring may be compared to the lifting up a chain of weights, lying upon a plain; or to the lifting a cylinder of timber out of the water endways.

PROP. LXXVII.

To find the lateral strength of any beam of timber, whose transverse section is any figure whatsoever.

III.

Let ERG be the section of the beam in the place where it breaks. Draw the ordinates IN , in , infinitely near each other and parallel to the base RG .

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{put } ER = d, & EI = x \\ RG = b, & IR = v \\ & IN = y \end{array}$$

the absolute strength of one fibre of the wood = 1.

When the beam breaks, it is done by the separation of the parts of the wood at E . Therefore QRE must be esteemed a bended leaver, whose fulcrum is at R . When the beam breaks, the fibres at E are stretched to their full strength, but those nearer R are less

K 2

stretched,

FIG. stretched, and exert less force or resistance in proportion to their distance from R (by the last Prop.); and
 111. therefore the resistance of a fibre at $I = \frac{v}{d}$; and the resistance of all the fibres in the parallelogram In , $= \frac{v}{d} \times In$; and the power of all the fibres in the parallelogram, in regard to the brachium IR , is $= \frac{vv}{d} \times In$. And the sum of all the powers in the whole section = sum of all the $\frac{vv}{d} \times In$.

Let g, p , be the distance of the center of gravity and percussive from RG , as the axis of motion.

Then (by Cor. 1. Prop. LVII.) the sum of all the $vv \times In = gp \times$ sum of all the $In = gp \times$ section ERG . And the sum of all the $\frac{vv}{d} \times In = \frac{gp}{d} \times$ section ERG . therefore the strength of the beam at E is $= \frac{gp}{d} \times$ section ERG .

112. Cor. 1. If there be taken $RO = \frac{gp}{d}$; then all the fibres of the wood being supposed to be collected in O , and acting there with their full strength; their total strength at O , shall be equal to the strength of the beam, at the section ERG .

For suppose O to be such a point; then the strength of the beam, or $\frac{gp}{d} \times$ section $ERG = RO \times$ section ERG ; and $RO = \frac{gp}{d}$.

Cor. 2. If the section be a parallelogram $g = \frac{1}{2} d$, and $p = \frac{2}{3} d$, therefore $RO = \frac{1}{3} d$. In

Sect. VIII. OF TIMBER.

133

In a circle whose diameter is ER , $g = \frac{1}{2}d$, $p = \frac{5}{8}d$, and $RO = \frac{5}{16}d = \frac{5}{8}d$, nearly, as in the parallelogram. FIG. 112.

In the periphery of a circle (the beam being a hollow cane) $g = \frac{1}{2}d$, and $p = \frac{3}{4}d$, whence $RO = \frac{3}{8}d = \frac{3}{8}d$, nearly: as in the parallelogram.

PROP. LXXVIII.

Given the weight that will break a beam laterally, to find how much will break it when drawn in direction of its length. 113.

Let DR be the beam.

put $l =$ its length DE ,

$W =$ weight applied at D , that can break it at E ,

$d =$ depth ER ,

$g =$ distance of the center of gravity of the section ERG from R ,

$p =$ distance of the center of percussion of ERG from RG ,

then $\frac{dl}{gp} W =$ weight that will break it when drawn in direction of its length.

But if the beam be supported at both ends, and the weight breaks it in the middle; g and p must be measured from the upper side, and take l for half its length, W for half the weight that breaks it.

For by Cor. 1. of the last Prop. if $RO = \frac{gp}{d}$, then

all the fibres of the beam acting at O , will be equal to the strength of the beam; and since W , applied at D , can break it in either case, therefore by the nature of the lever, it will be, $l \times W = RO \times$ absolute strength

FIG.
113.

strength $= \frac{gp}{d} \times$ absolute strength, therefore the absolute strength $= \frac{ldW}{gp}$, or the weight that can break it when drawn in length.

Cor. Hence if there be taken $RL = \frac{gp}{d}$. then the weight which being applied at L , will just break the beam horizontally; the same will just pull it asunder, when applied lengthways.

For then $l = \frac{gp}{d}$, and weight $W =$ resistance at $O =$ strength of the whole beam.

Therefore if a piece of oak an inch square and a foot long supported at both ends, bears 315 lb. before it breaks; it will bear, when drawn in length, 2835 lb. or 1 tun, 5 hundreds, 2 stone, 7 pounds; that is, above a tun and a quarter.

S C H O L.

Here we all along suppose that the fulcrum at R remains fixt; but if it should vary by the denting in of the parts at R , it will cause a little variation in the strength, and make the beam something weaker laterally. And that it will yield a little this way is evident from experiments, for the hardest bodies, such as glass in small threads, may be extended in length, and consequently may be contracted by a contrary force; and balls of glass or wood let fall upon a hard body, will rebound; which they cannot do without the denting in of the parts.

P R O P.

PROP. LXXIX.

If a weight be laid upon the streight beam AB supported at both ends; its bending or curvature will be nearly, as the weight and length directly; and as the breadth and cube of the depth reciprocally.

It is found by Prop. 76. that if several weights be laid successively upon a horizontal beam *AB*, the space *CD* through which the point *D* descends will be as the weight it bears. Now the parts at *e*, *f*, which are contiguous at the beginning of the descent, are gradually separated; till at last the beam breaks. At which time, when it can bear no more, the infinitely small distance *ef* is a given quantity. If *CD* be supposed very small, then *CD* is as the curvature at *D*, and this curvature is as the infinitely small angle *eDf*, that is, as $\frac{ef}{Df}$, and when it breaks, as $\frac{1}{Df}$.

Let *L* be the length of any beam, *b* its breadth, *Df* its depth; then (by Pr. 73.) its strength, or the weight it will bear, is as $\frac{b \times Df^2}{L}$. Therefore put $\frac{b \times Df^2}{L}$ for the greatest weight, and $\frac{1}{Df}$ for the curvature when breaking; *W* for any other weight, and *C* the correspondent curvature. And it will be as $\frac{b \times Df^2}{L} : \frac{1}{Df} :: W : C = \frac{LW}{b \times Df}$.

Cor. 1. The quantity of deflexion CD of any beam, is as the weight and cube of the length directly, and the breadth and cube of the depth reciprocally.

For when *CD* is very small, *AdB* is very near a
K 4
circle,

FIG.
114.

circle, or nearer a parabola; suppose it a circle and let its radius be R ; then $2R \times CD = AD^2$ or $\frac{1}{4}LL$;

therefore $\frac{CD}{LL} = \frac{1}{8R}$, whence $\frac{CD}{LL}$ is as the curvature C , that is, as $\frac{LW}{b \times Df^3}$, or CD is as $\frac{wL^3}{b \times Df^3}$.

And if ACB , the original position of the beam, is not a right line; yet CD will still be of the same quantity.

Cor. 2. In similar homogeneous freight bodies, the curvature is as the weight directly, and cube of the depth reciprocally: but the deflexion CD is as the weight directly, and depth reciprocally.

Cor. 3. In similar bodies bending from a freight line by their own weight; the curvature is given: And the deflexion is as the square of the depth.

Cor. 4. In the utmost strength of beams, or their breaking position; the curvature is reciprocally as the depth; and the deflexion as the square of the length directly, and the depth reciprocally. For then $b \times Df^3$ is as LW .

Cor. 5. What is said of freight beams, is equally true of any beams in regard to the increase or variation of curvature, and to the deflection from their original position.

S C H O L.

What is said of beams of timber in this section, is equally applicable to any solid bodies, acted on in a like manner as by weights. There are some bodies, in which a very little bending may have a great effect; as in the glasses of large telescopes. For (by Cor. 3. of the last Prop.) the deflexion from their true figure, arising from their own weight, is as the square of the diameter, when the glasses are similar. And though
this

this be insensible in small glassess, it may produce some sensible error in large ones: And the same may happen to them in grinding by too much pressure. FIG. 114.

From the foregoing propositions it follows, that if a certain beam of timber be able to support a given weight; another beam of the same timber, similar to the former, may be taken so great, as to be able but just to bear its own weight. And any bigger beam cannot support itself, but must break by its own weight; and any less beam will bear something more. For the strength being as the cube of the depth; and the stress, being as the matter and length, is as the fourth power of the depth: It is plain the stress increases in a greater ratio than the strength. Whence it follows that a beam may be taken so large, that the stress may far exceed the strength. And that of all similar beams, there is but one that will support itself and nothing more. Likewise if any beam can bear ten times its own weight; no other similar beam will do the same. And the like holds in all machines and in all animal bodies. And hence there is a certain limit, in regard to magnitude, not only in all machines and artificial structures, but also in natural ones, which neither art nor nature can go beyond; supposing them made of the same matter and in the same proportion of parts.

Hence it is impossible that mechanic engines can be increase to any bigness. For when they arrive at a particular size, their several parts will break and fall asunder by their weight. Neither can any buildings of vast bigness be made to stand, but must fall to pieces by their great weight, and go to ruin. Vast columns and pyramids will break by their weight; and tumble down.

It is likewise impossible for nature to produce animals of any vast size at pleasure; or any such thing as giants, or men of prodigious stature; except some sort of matter can be found to make the bones of, which

FIG. which is so much harder and stronger than any hitherto known: or else that the proportion of the parts be so much altered, and the bones and muscles made thicker in proportion; which will make the animal distorted and of a monstrous figure, and not capable of performing any proper action. And being made similar and of common matter; they won't be able to stand or move, but being burdened by their own weight, must fall down.

Thus it is impossible that there can be any animal so big as to carry a castle upon his back; or any man so strong as to remove a mountain, or pull up a large oak by the roots: Nature will not admit of these things; whence it is impossible there can be animals of any sort beyond a determinate bigness.

Fish may indeed be produced to a larger size than land animals; because their weight is supported by the water. But yet they cannot be increased to immensity, because the internal parts will press upon one another by their weight, and destroy their fabric.

On the contrary when the size of animals is diminished, their strength is not diminished in the same proportion as the weight. And therefore a small animal will carry far more than its own weight, whilst a great one cannot carry so much as its weight. And hence it is, that small animals are more active, will run faster, jump further, or perform any motion quicker, for their weight, than large animals: For the lesser the animal the greater the proportion of the strength to the stress. And nature seems to know no bounds, as to the smallness of animals, at least in regard to their weight.

Neither can any two unequal and similar machines, resist any violence alike, or in the same proportion; but the greater will be more hurt than the lesser. And the same is true of animals; for large animals, by falling break their bones, whilst lesser ones falling higher receive no damage. Thus a cat may fall two or three

Sect.

three
the toIt
that
there
bran
weig
quar
stanc
henc
selvN
stan
that
was
ma
selv
ma
lighstre
use
chi
pro
tio
pa
forho
of
A
w
u
tob
w
t

SECT. VIII. OF TIMBER.

139

three yards high and be no worse,, and an ant from the top of a tower.

FIG.

114.

It is likewise impossible in the nature of things, that there can be any trees of immense bigness; If there were any such, their limbs, boughs, and branches must break and fall down by their great weight. Thus it's impossible there can be an oak a quarter of a mile high; such a tree cannot grow or stand, but its limbs will drop off by their weight. And hence likewise lesser plants can better sustain themselves than large ones can do.

Neither could a tree of an ordinary size be able to stand, if it was composed of the same tender matter that some plants consist of. Nor such a plant if it was much bigger than common. And that plants, made of such tender matter may better support themselves; Nature has made the trunks and branches of many of them hollow; by which means they are both lighter and stronger.

The propositions before laid down, concerning the strength and stress of timber, &c. are also of excellent use in several concerns of life, and particularly in architecture; and upon these principles a great many problems may be resolved relating to the due proportion of strength in several bodies, according to their particular positions and weights they are to bear; some of which I shall briefly enumerate.

If a piece of timber is to be holed with a mortise hole, the beam will be stronger when it is taken out of the middle, than if it be taken out of either side. And in a beam supported at both ends, it is stronger when the hole is taken out of the upper side than the under one, provided a piece of wood is driven hard in to fill up the hole.

If a piece is to be spliced upon the end of a beam, to be supported at both ends; it will be stronger when spliced on the underside of the beam, than on the upper side. But if the beam is supported only
at

FIG. at one end, to bear a weight on the other; it is
114. stronger when spliced on the upper side.

When a small leaver, &c. is nailed to a body, to move it or suspend it by; the strain is greater upon the nail nearest the hand, or point where the power is applied.

If a beam is supported at both ends; and the two ends reach over the Props, and be fixt down immoveable; it will bear twice as much weight, as when the ends only lye loose or free upon the supporters.

If a slender cylinder is to be supported by two pins; the distance of the pins ought to be $\frac{3}{4}$ parts of the length of the cylinder, that is near $\frac{3}{4}$ its length; the pins equidistant from its ends; and then the cylinder will endure the least bending or strain, by its weight.

115. By the foregoing principles it also follows, that a beam fixt at one end, and bearing a weight at the other; if it be cut in the form of a wedge and placed with its parallel sides, parallel to the horizon; it will be equally strong every where; and no sooner break in one place than another.

116. If a beam has all its sides cut into the form of a parabola, whose vertex is at the end, and abscissa perpendicular to the axis of the solid, and base a square, a circle, or any regular polygon; such a beam fixt at one end, is equally strong throughout for supporting its own weight.

By the same principles; if a wall faces the wind, and if the section of it be a right angled triangle; or the foreside be perpendicular to the horizon, and the backside terminated by a sloping plane intersecting the other plane in the top of the wall. Such a wall will be equally strong in all its parts to resist the wind; if the parts of the wall cohere strongly together; but
if

if it be built of loose materials; it is better to be convex on the backside in form of a parabola.

FIG.
116.

If a wall is to support a bank of earth or any fluid body; it ought to be built concave in form of a semicubical parabola, whose vertex is at the top of the wall; this is when the parts of the wall stick well together. But if the parts be loose; then a right-line or sloping plane ought to be its figure. Such walls will be equally strong throughout.

All spires of churches in the form of cones or pyramids, are equally strong in all parts to resist the wind. But when the parts cohere not together; parabolic conoids are equally strong throughout.

Likewise if there be a pillar erected in form of the logarithmic curve; the asymptote being the axis; it cannot be crushed to pieces in one part sooner than in another, by its own weight. And if such a pillar be turned upside down, and suspended at the thick end, in the air: it will be no sooner pulled asunder in one part than another, by its own weight. And the case is the same; if the small end be cut off, and instead of it, a cylinder be added whose height is half the subtangent.

Lastly let AE be a beam in form of a triangular prism, and if $AD = \frac{1}{9} AB$, and $AI = \frac{1}{9} AC$, and the point $ADIF$ be cut away parallel to the base; the remaining beam $DICEF$ will bear a greater weight P , than the whole $ABCEG$, or the part will be stronger than the whole; which is a paradox in mechanics. 117.

And upon the same principles, an infinite number of questions of like kind may be resolved, which are curious

STRENGTH AND STRESS

FIG. curious enough, and of great use in the common affairs of life.

All I shall add here, is the strength of some sorts of timber as collected from experiments. A piece of wood a foot long and an inch square, supported horizontally at both ends, will bear in the middle before it breaks, as follows,

		Pounds.
Oak	- -	320
Elm	- - -	310
Beech	- -	290
Fir	- - -	280



SECT.

S E C T. IX.

The properties of fluids; the principles of Hydrostatics, Hydraulics, and Pneumatics.

P R O P. LXXX.

Motion or pressure in a fluid is not propagated in right lines; but equally all around, in all manner of directions.

118

If a force act at *a* in direction *ab*, that motion can be directed no further than these particles lye in a right line, as to *c*. But the particle *c* will urge the particles *d*, *f* obliquely, by which that motion is conveyed to *e*, *g*. And these particles *e*, *g*, will urge the particle *n*, *p*, and *r*, *s* obliquely, which lye nearest them. Therefore the pressure, as soon as it is propagated to particles that lye out of right lines, begins to deflect towards one side and the other; and that pressure being farther continued, will deflect into other oblique directions, and so on. Therefore the pressure and motion is propagated obliquely ad infinitum; and will therefore be propagated in all directions.

Cor. If any part of a pressure propagated through a fluid be stoppt by an obstacle; the remaining part will deflect into the spaces behind the obstacle. Thus if a

wave

119.

- FIG. *wave proceeds from C, and a part goes through the hole*
 119. *A; it expands itself and forms a new wave beyond the*
hole, which moves forward in a semircircle whose center
is the hole.

For any part of a fluid pressing against the next, is equally reacted on by the next, and that by the next to it, and so on; from whence follows a lateral pressure, (equal to the direct pressure) into the places behind the obstacle.

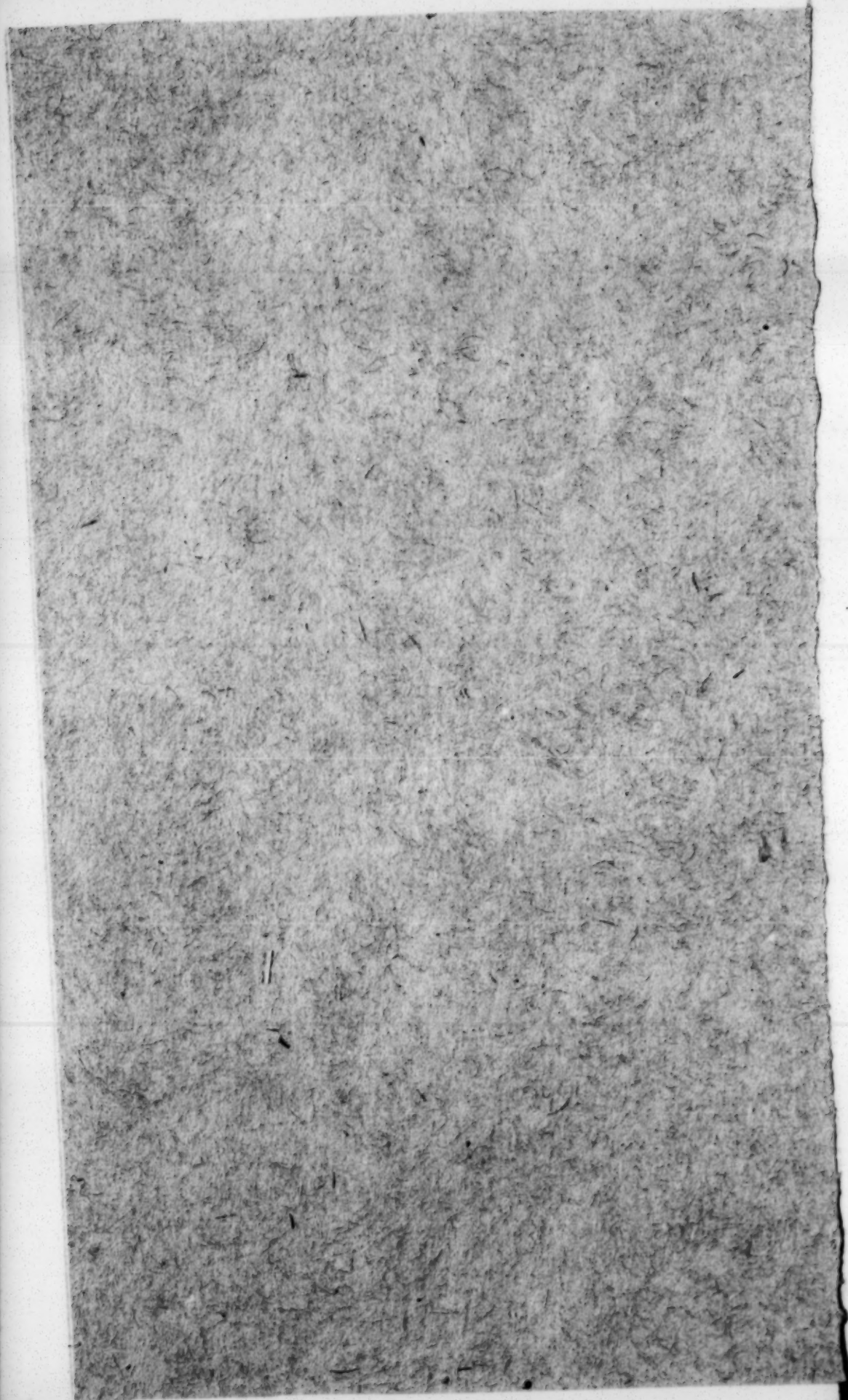
P R O P. LXXXI.

120. *A fluid can only be at rest when its surface is placed in a*
horizontal situation.

For let $ABCD$ be a vessel of water or any fluid: and let AB be parallel to the horizon. Suppose the surface of the liquor to be in the position FE . then because the parts of the fluid are easily moveable among themselves; therefore (by Ax. 7.) the higher parts at E will, by their gravity, continually descend to the lower places at F . Also the greater pressure under E and the lesser under F , will cause the parts at E to descend, and those at F to ascend. And thus the higher parts of the fluid at E descending, and spreading themselves over the lower parts at F , which are at the same time ascending: the surface of the fluid will at last be reduced to a horizontal position AB . But being settled in this position, since there is no part higher than another, there is no tendency in any one part to descend, more than in another; and therefore the fluid will rest in a horizontal position.

121. *Cor. 1. If the fluid does not gravitate in parallel*
lines, but towards a fixt point or center C; then the flu-
id can only be at rest when its surface takes the form of
a spherical surface AB, whose center is C.

For



Se

wo
nu
wh
wo

to

th
A
fit

th
F
ev
of
th
th

on
ri
it
th

I

T
L
a
F

SECT. IX. HYDROSTATICS.

145 .

For if any parts of the surface of the fluid A or B , were further from C than the rest, they would continually flow down to the places nearer C , towards which their weights are directed: till at last they would all be equidistant from it.

FIG.

121.

Cor. 2. Any fluid being disturbed, will of itself return to the same level, or horizontal position.

Cor. 3. Hence also if a different fluid $ABEF$ rest upon the fluid $ABCD$; both the surface FE , and the surface AB that divides them, will lye in a level or horizontal situation, when at rest.

122

For if any part of the surface AB be higher than the rest, it will descend to the same level. And since FE is also level, and therefore the height AF , BE in every place equal; the pressure of it on all the parts of the horizontal surface AB will be equal. And therefore it cannot descend in one place more than another, but will continue level.

Cor. 4. Hence water communicating with two places, or any way conveyed from one place to another; will rise to the same level in both places. Except so far as it is hindered by the friction of the channel it moves through.

PROP. LXXXII.

In any fluid remaining at rest; every part of it, at the same depth, is in an equal state of compression.

For let the plane EF be parallel to the surface AB . Then since the height of the fluid at all the points of EF is equal; therefore the weights standing upon any equal parts of EF are equal: And therefore the pressure in all the points of EF is equal also.

123

L

Cor.

FIG.
123.

Cor. 1. A fluid being at rest, the pressure at any dept is as the depth.

For this pressure depends on the weight of the superincumbent fluid, and therefore is as its height.

Cor. 2. In any given place, a fluid presses equally in all directions.

For (by Pr. 80.) as the pressure in any place, acts in all directions; it must be the same in all directions. For if it were less in one direction than another, the fluid would move that way, till the pressure becomes equal. And then the fluid would be at rest, and be equally compressed in all directions.

Cor. 3. The pressure is equal in every part of a plane drawn parallel to the horizon.

Cor. 4. When a fluid is at rest, each drop or particle of it, is equally pressed on all sides, by the weight of the fluid above it.

P R O P. LXXXIII.

In any vessel whose base is parallel to the horizon, the pressure of a fluid upon the base, is as the base and perpendicular altitude of the fluid; whatever be the figure of the containing vessel.

CASE I.

Let $ABCD$ be a cylinder or prism, then (by Cor. 1. Pr. 82.) the pressure upon a given part of the base, (as a square inch) is as the depth. And the pressure upon the whole base is as the number of parts or inches, contained in it: and therefore is as the base and altitude of the fluid.

CASE

CASE II.

FIG.
124.

Let the heights and bases of the vessels ABC , DEF be equal, to those of the cylinder $ABCD$; then since any part of the bases AB or DE is equally prest as an equal part of the base CD ; therefore the whole pressure upon the bases AB or DE is equal to the whole pressure upon the base CD . And therefore is as the base and perpendicular height.

Cor. 1. If two vessels ABC , DEF of equal base and height, though never so different in their capacities; be filled with any the same fluid; their bases will sustain an equal quantity of pressure; the same as a cylinder of the same base and height.

Cor. 2. The quantity of pressure at any given depth upon a given surface; is always the same, whether the surface pressed be parallel to the horizon, or perpendicular or oblique: or whether the fluid, continued upwards from the compressed surface, rises perpendicular in a rectilinear direction, or creeps obliquely through crooked cavities and canals; and whether these passages are regular or irregular, wide or narrow. And hence

Cor. 3. If $ABDCF$ be any vessel containing a fluid; and BL , ED , $HFOK$, and GC be perpendicular to the horizon, and $GHAB$ the surface of the liquor; and FL , COD parallel to AB . Then the pressure at L and F is as BL or HF ; at D , O , and C , as ED ; at K as HK . And therefore the pressure at L and F is the same. And the pressures at D , O , C , are equal. 125

Cor. 4. The pressure is every where directed perpendicularly against the inner surface of the vessel. Therefore at K it is directed downward, at L sideways, and at F upwards. By Prop. 9.

Cor.

FIG.

126.

Cor. 5. If two vessels AB, CD communicate with one another by the tube BC: And if any liquor be poured into one AB, it will rise to the same height in the other CD; and will stand at equal heights in both; that is, AD will be a horizontal line.

For if the fluid stand at unequal heights; the pressure in the higher will be greater than in the lower, and cause it to move towards the lower.

127.

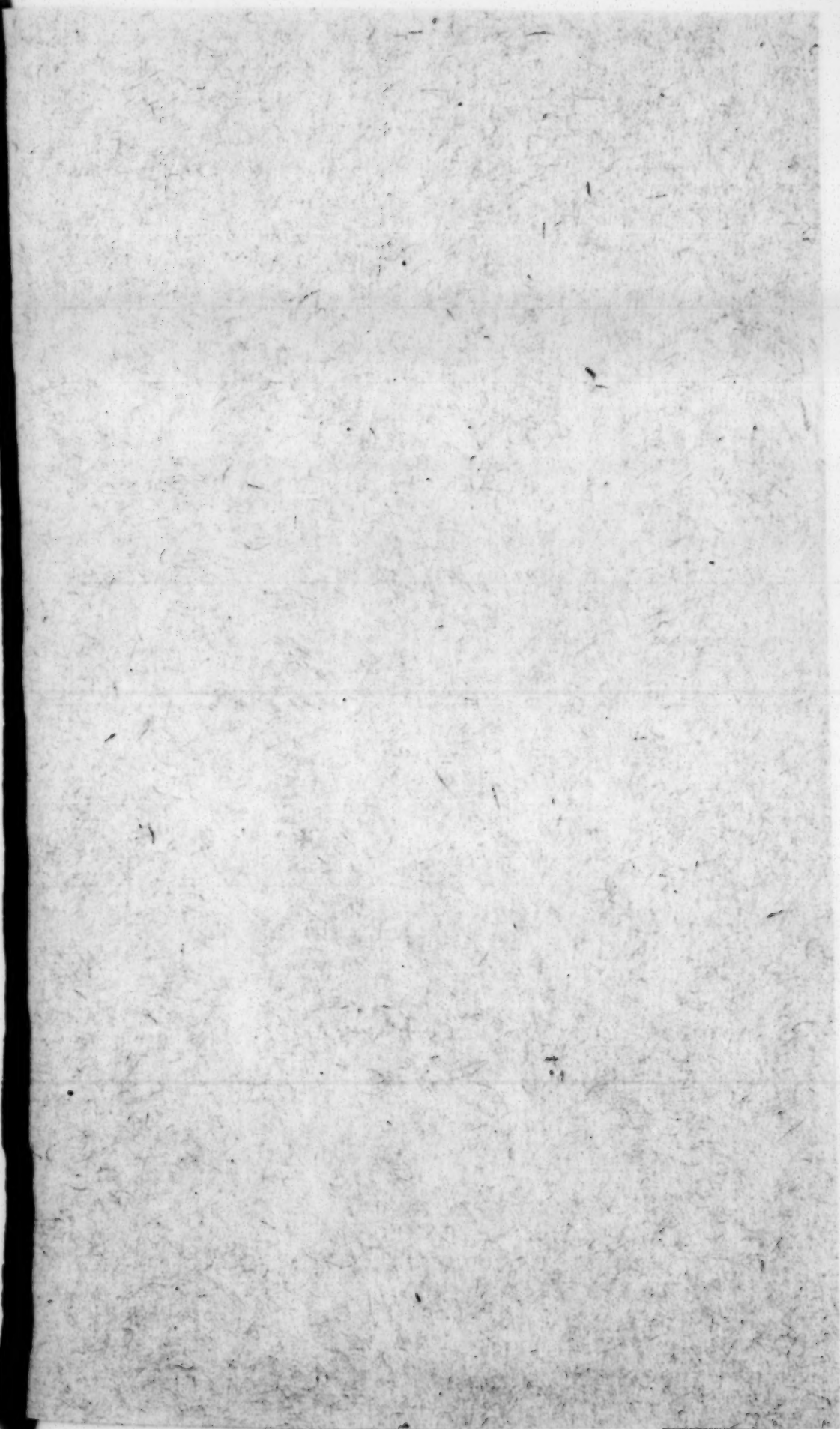
128.

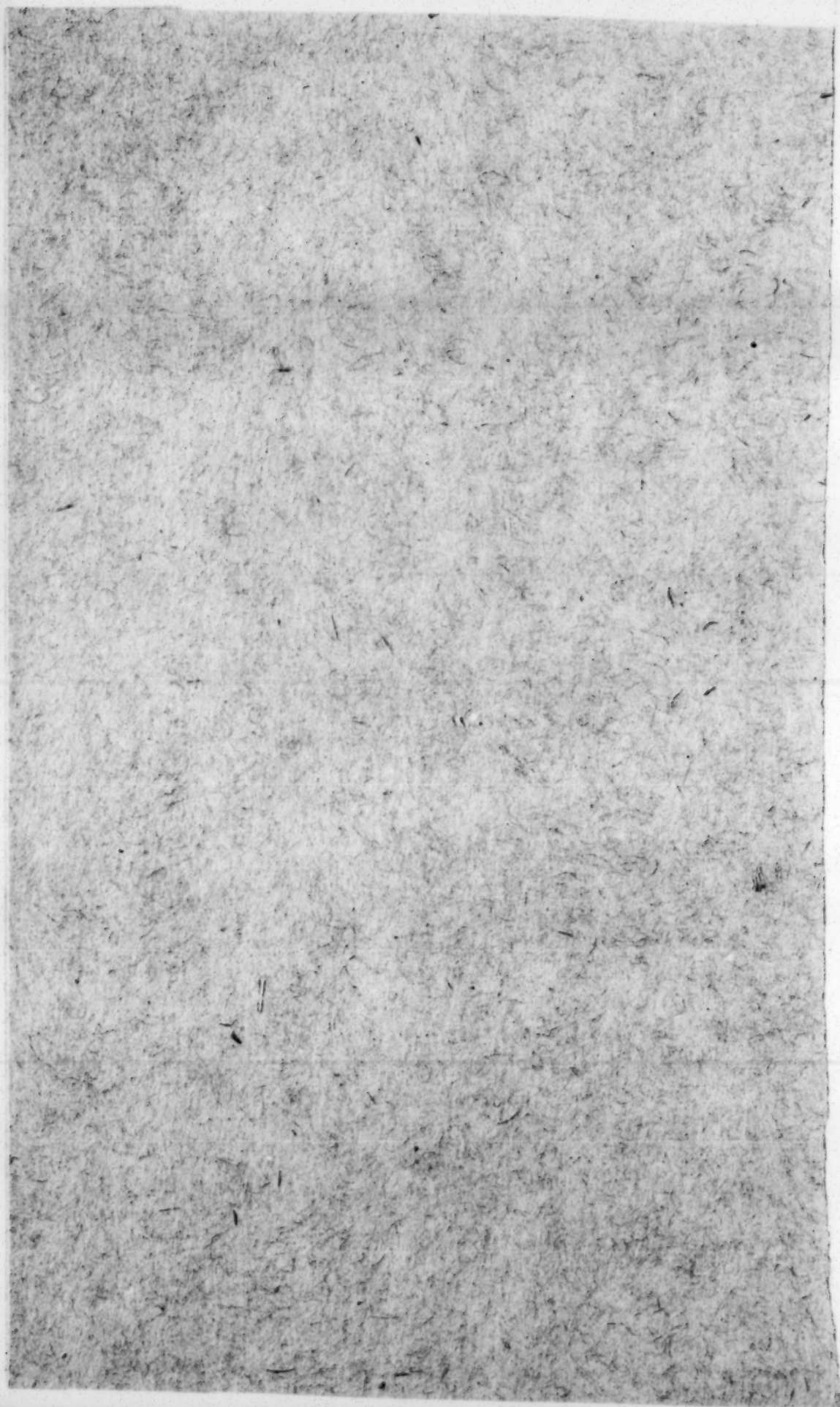
Cor. 6. If two different fluids sustain one another at rest, in two vessels AB, CD, that communicate; their height above their place of meeting, will be reciprocally as their densities or specific gravities.

Let the fluids join at C, and take the perpendicular height of eC , equal to that of AB . Then if the densities of the fluids were equal, they would sustain one another at the equal heights AB, Ce . Therefore that the pressure of the other fluid may be the same at C; its height must be so much greater as the density is less; that is, $CD : Ce$ or $AB ::$ density of $AB : \text{density of } CD$.

S C H O L.

The truth of the foregoing propositions may be easily proved experimentally. Take several tubes open at both ends, some streight, some crooked, with their low ends turned in all directions; and of several sizes, regular and irregular. Put these into a vessel of water to any depth; and the water will rise up to the height of the external surface of the water in them all. But this is to be understood of such tubes as are sufficiently wide: For in capillary tubes immersed in a vessel of water, it rises something above the level, and that to heights reciprocally as the diameters. Likewise if water can rise and be suspended at
the





Se $\dot{c}$ t. IX. HYDROSTATICS.

149

the height B in the capillary tube AB ; it will be suspended at the same height B , whilst the part of the tube at B remains the same, whatever be the figure or wideness of the under part CD . And the ascent and suspension of water is the very same in vacuo. The same holds for any other fluids; but different fluids rise to different heights. But quicksilver, instead of ascending in a tube, sinks in it; and has its surface depressed below the common surface, to depths which are reciprocally as the diameters of the tubes. But the forces by which fluids are suspended in capillary tubes, come under no hydrostatic laws.

FIG.
129.

P R O P. LXXXIV.

If a homogeneous body be immersed in a fluid of the same density with itself, it will remain at rest in any place, and in any position. But a body of greater density than the fluid will sink to the bottom; and a body of lesser density will rise to the top.

C A S E I.

Let the body EGF be immersed in the fluid AD : Then since the body is of the same density as the fluid; therefore the body will press the fluid under it just as much as the same quantity of the fluid put in its place. And therefore the pressure of the body, together with that of the fluid above it, presses the fluid below, as much as a column of the fluid of the same depth. Therefore the pressure of the body at F against the fluid, is equal to the pressure of the fluid at F against the body. And therefore these two pressures will remain in equilibrio, and the body will be at rest.

130.

C A S E II.

If the body is more dense, the pressure against the fluid underneath is greater than that of an equal quantity

FIG.
130.

tity of the fluid. Therefore the weight of the body will overcome the pressure of the fluid under it, and it will sink. But if the body be lighter, the pressure of the fluid will overcome the weight of the body and it will rise to the top.

Cor. 1. If several fluids of different densities, be mixt together in the same vessel; the heaviest will get to the lowest place, and the lightest to the top; and those of a mean density, to the middle. And in any bodies whatever, the heaviest will be the lowest.

Cor. 2. Hence bodies placed in fluids have a two-fold gravity, the one true and absolute; the other apparent or relative. Absolute gravity is the force with which bodies tend downward: By this all sorts of fluid bodies gravitate in their proper places; and their weight taken together compose the weight of the whole: For the whole is heavy as may be experienced in vessels full of liquor. Relative gravity is the excess of the gravity of the body above that of the fluid. By this kind of gravity fluids do not gravitate in their proper places, that is, they do not preponderate; but hindering one another's descent, remain in their proper places as if they were not heavy.

Cor. 3. Hence an irregular body, or one that is heterogeneous, descending in a fluid, or if it move in any direction; and a line be drawn connecting the center of gravity and center of magnitude of the body; the body will so dispose itself, as to move in that line, and that the center of gravity will go foremost, and the center of magnitude behind.

For there being more matter and less surface near the center of gravity, that part will be less resisted than near the center of magnitude; therefore the center of magnitude will be more retarded than the center of gravity, and will be left behind.

Cor.

SECT. IX. HYDROSTATICS.

151

Cor. 4. Hence no body can be at rest within a fluid unless it be of the same specific gravity as the fluid.

FIG.
130.

SCHOL.

What is here said of bodies of greater density sinking in a fluid must be understood of such as are solid. For if a body be hollow it may swim in a fluid of less density. But if the hollows or cavities be filled with the fluid, it will then sink. Likewise bodies of greater specific gravity, being reduced to extremely small particles, may then be suspended in the fluid. But the forces by which this is done belong not to any laws of Hydrostatics.

PROP. LXXXV.

Bodies immersed in a fluid and suspended in it, lose the weight of an equal bulk of the fluid.

For (by the last Prop.) if the body *EF* be of the same density as the fluid, it loses all its weight; and neither endeavours to ascend or descend. Therefore if it be lighter or heavier, it only endeavours to ascend or descend with the difference of the weights of the body and the fluid: And has therefore lost the weight of as much of the fluid.

Cor. 1. The fluid acquires the weight which the body loses.

For the sum of the weights of the solid and fluid is the same, both before and after emersion.

Cor. 2. All bodies of equal magnitude immersed in a fluid, lose equal weights: And unequal bodies lose weights proportional to their bulks.

L 4

Cor.

FIG.

130.

Cor. 3. The weights lost by immersing one and the same body in different fluids, are as the densities of the fluids, or as their specific gravities.

Cor. 4. Hence also if two bodies of unequal bulks be in equilibrio in one fluid; they will lose their equilibrium in another fluid, of different density.

S C H O L I U M.

Since a body immersed in a fluid, loses so much weight as that of an equal quantity of the fluid; therefore it tends downwards, only with the difference of these weights: And this is the relative gravity of the body in the fluid. But if the body is specifically lighter than the fluid, it seems to lose more weight than it has; and hence the body will tend upwards with the difference of these weights. And this is the relative levity of the body in the fluid: Such as we see in feathers or smoke in the air, or cork in water.

P R O P. LXXXVI.

The weight of a solid body floating upon a fluid, is equal to the weight of a quantity of the fluid as big as the immersed part of the solid, cut off by the plane of the surface of the fluid.

For if the body be at rest, the pressure of the body upon the fluid underneath is just the same as the pressure of the fluid in the room of the immersed part. And therefore the weight of one is equal to the weight of the other.

Cor. 1. If the body be homogeneous the weight or magnitude of the floating body, is to the weight or magnitude of the part immersed :: as the density or specific gravity of

Sect. IX. HYDROSTATICS.

of the fluid, is to the density or specific gravity of the body.

153
FIG.
130.

For the density of the fluid : density of the body :: weight (of the fluid equal to the immersed part, or the weight) of the whole body : weight of the immersed part.

Cor. 2. If one and the same body float or swim upon different liquids ; the immersed part in each liquid will be reciprocally as their densities. And therefore a body sink deeper in a lighter fluid, than in a heavier.

P R O P. LXXXVII.

If a floating body AFBE, or system of bodies, be at rest in a fluid, and D be the center of gravity of the whole body, and C the center of gravity of the fluid AFB equal to the immersed part of the body : then I say the line CD will be perpendicular to the horizon.

131.

For as C is the center of gravity of the fluid AFB, it is the center of all the forces or weights of the parts of the water in AFB, tending downwards ; but because the body is at rest, the same point C is also the center of all the pressures of the fluid underneath tending upwards, by which the weight of the fluid AFB or of the body AFBE (equal to it by Pr. last) is sustained. Therefore the sum of all the forces tending upwards to C, is equal and contrary to the sum of all the forces tending downwards from D, by Ax. 11. because that pressure sustains the body. but the weight of the body tending from D is perpendicular to the horizon, therefore CD is perpendicular to the horizon.

Cor. If the whole body be as heavy or heavier than water,

FIG. *water, and be immersed in it; the center of gravity will be the lowest, and descend the foremost.*

P R O P. LXXXVIII.

If a fluid, considered without weight, be inclosed in a vessel and strongly compressed on all sides; every part within it will be in the same compressed state.

For if any particle was less pressed than another, the greater pressure would move the fluid towards the less compressed part, till their compression became every where equal: And then the equal pressures would ballance one another and remain at rest.

132. *Cor. 1. Hence any soft body as GHI, whose parts cannot be condensed; being immersed in a fluid inclosed in a vessel, and strongly compressed on every side; the body will retain its figure, and suffer no change from the compression of the ambient fluid. And all its parts will remain at rest among themselves, and in the same compressed state as the fluid.*

Cor. 2. The motion of any included body as E, or of any number of bodies, will not be at all changed by the compression of the fluid; but will remain the same as before.

For the compression acting every way alike, can make no alteration in the motion of bodies.

Cor. 3. In an inflexible vessel, a fluid will not sustain a stronger pressure on one side than another; but will give way to any excess of pressure in a moment of time, and be reduced to an equality of pressure.

P R O P.

PROP. LXXXIX.

If air or any elastic fluid of small density, be shut up in a close vessel; every part of it will be in the same compressed state.

For let *ABCD* be a vessel full of inclosed air; then the air at equal altitudes within the vessel will be in the same state of compression. And the compression in the bottom of the vessel can only exceed that at the top, by the weight of a column of air of the height of the vessel *AC*, by Cor. 1. Pr. 82. But the weight of such a column of air is insensible in respect of the external pressure, or the pressure of the height of the atmosphere. And therefore the compression in every part of the vessel may be looked upon to be the same.

Cor. 1. In like manner the compression of the air in any two places near the earth's surface, is very nearly the same.

For the difference is only the weight of a column of air, whose height is the difference of the heights of the two places; which is very inconsiderable.

Cor. 2. If air be compressed in any vessel by the pressure of the external air; its elastic force is equal to the force and pressure of the external air.

Cor. 3. The air does the same thing by its spring, as a non-elastic fluid does by its weight or pressure.

For the spring or elasticity of the air, is the force it exerts against the force of compression; and therefore must be equal to it.

SCHOL.

HYDROSTATICS.

S C H O L.

That the air is a heavy, elastic, compressible body is confirmed by many experiments made for that purpose. Its properties are these.

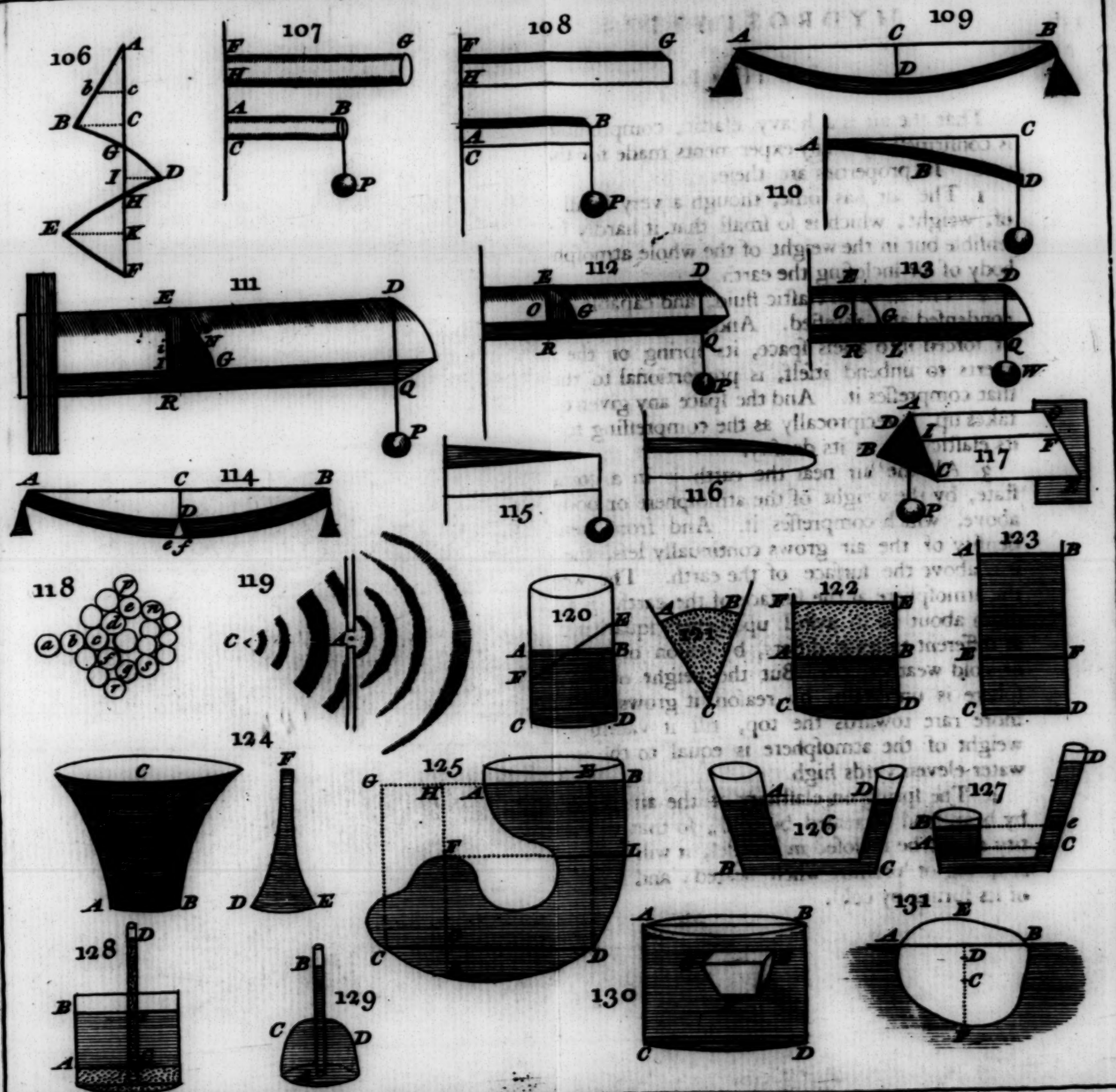
1. The air has some, though a very small degree of, weight; which is so small that it hardly becomes sensible but in the weight of the whole atmosphere, or body of air inclosing the earth.

2. The air is an elastic fluid, and capable of being condensed and rarefied. And when it is condensed or forced into a less space, its spring or the force it exerts to unbend itself, is proportional to the force that compresses it. And the space any given quantity takes up, is reciprocally as the compressing force: or its elasticity is as its density.

3. All the air near the earth is in a compressed state, by the weight of the atmosphere or body of air above, which compresses it. And from hence the density of the air grows continually less, the higher it is above the surface of the earth. The weight of the atmosphere at the surface of the earth, is at a medium about 14 lb. averd. upon every square inch. But at different times it differs, by reason of winds, hot or cold weather, &c. But the height of the atmosphere is uncertain, by reason it grows continually more rare towards the top, till it vanishes. The weight of the atmosphere is equal to the weight of water eleven yards high.

4. The spring or elasticity of the air is encreased by heat, and decreased by cold; so that if any quantity of air be inclosed in a vessel, it will have a greater spring or pressure when heated; and will lose part of its spring by cold.

P R O P.



PROP. XC.

To find the specific gravity of bodies.

CASE I.

If it be a solid body heavier than water; weigh it exactly, first in air, and then in water or some fluid whose specific gravity you know; and let

The absolute weight of the body = A,

The weight in water, &c. = B,

The specific gravity of water, &c. = C,

The specific gravity of the body = D,

then will $D = \frac{A}{A-B} C$, *the specific gravity of the body.*

CASE II.

For a solid body lighter than water: Take any piece of metal and tie it to a piece of the light body, so that the compound may sink in water: And putting A, C, D as in Case I, and

E = weight of the metal in water,

F = weight of the compound in water,

then $D = \frac{AC}{A+E-F}$, *the specific gravity of the light body.*

CASE III.

For a fluid: Take a solid body of known specific gravity which will sink in the fluid. And putting the same letters as in Case I. then will $C = \frac{A-B}{A}$, *the specific gravity of the fluid.*

Or thus:

Take a body that will sink in the fluid and also in water. And let $A =$

FIG.

 $A =$ absolute weight of the body, $B =$ its weight in water, $G =$ its weight in the fluid, $C =$ specific gravity of water. $Z =$ specific of gravity of the fluid required.

$$\text{then } Z = \frac{A-G}{A-B} C.$$

But for mercury, or for powders, dust, or small fragments of bodies, you must use a glass or metal bucket; observing to ballance its weight both in air and water. And for bodies that will dissolve in water; weigh them in oyl of turpentine instead of water. When the body is weighed in the fluid, it must be suspended by a horse hair, or a fine silk thread. Note, if the body and the fluid be near the same specific gravity, your work will be more exact.

To demonstrate the rules. it is evident (by Prop. 85.) that a body weighed in water, loses the weight of as much water. Therefore in case 1, the weight of an equal quantity of water is $A-B$. But (by def. 11.) the specific gravities are as the weights of equal quantities of matter: therefore $A-B : A :: C : D$.

And in case the 2d; $F-E =$ weight of the light body in water, (which is negative when E is greater than F); and the weight of an equal quantity of water is $A - \overline{F+E}$ or $A + E - F$, therefore (as in Case 1.) it is $A + E - F : A :: C : D$. And the rule is equally true whether D be lighter or heavier than water.

In Case 3, since $D = \frac{A}{A-B} C$, therefore $C = \frac{A-B}{A} D$.

or in the other rule; $A-B =$ weight of as much water, and $A-G =$ weight of as much of the fluid. And the specific gravities being as the weights of equal quantities of the matter. Therefore $A-B : A-G :: C : Z$.

Cor.

Cor. 1. Hence if a piece of metal or any sort of matter is offered; to know what sort it is of. Find its specific gravity by the rule above, which seek in the following table; and the nearest to it gives the name of the body, or what kind it is of.

Cor. 2. And to find the solid content of a small body heavier than water. weigh it in air and water, and the difference of the weights reduced to grains, being divided by 256; the quotient is the cubic inches it contains.

For a cubic inch of water weighs 256 grains. Or a cubic foot weighs 76.4 lb. troy, or $62 \frac{1}{2}$ lb. averdupoise, which is but 254 grains to an inch.

Cor. 3. Hence also the solidity of a body being known, the weight may be found: And the contrary. Thus, put $n = 0.5275$ ounces troy or 0.5787 ounces averdupoise; and $D =$ specific gravity of the body, by the following table. Then as $1 : nD ::$ solid content in inches : weight in ounces; and one being given, finds the other.

For the weight of a cubic inch of water is .5275 oz. troy, or .5787 oz. averdupoise.

A TABLE of the specific gravities of bodies.

S O L I D S.

Fine gold	_____	19.640
Standard gold	_____	18.888
Lead	_____	11.340
Fine Silver	_____	11.092
Standard silver	_____	10.536
Copper	_____	9.000
Copper half pence	_____	8.915

Fine

HYDROSTATICS.

Fine brafs	—	8.350
Caft brafs	—	8.100
Steel	—	7.850
Iron	—	7.644
Pewter	—	7.471
Tin	—	7.320
Caft iron	—	7.000
Lead oar	—	6.200
Lapis calaminaris	—	5.000
Load ftone	—	4.930
Diamond	—	3.517
Whitelead	—	3.160
Island criftal	—	2.720
Marble	—	2.707
Pebble ftone	—	2.700
Coral	—	2.700
Jasper	—	2.666
Rock Chryftal	—	2.650
Pearl	—	2.630
Glaß	—	2.600
Flint	—	2.570
Onixftone	—	2.510
Common-ftone	—	2.500
Glauber falt	—	2.250
Chryftal —	—	2.210
Oyfter fhells	—	2.092
Brick	—	2.000
Earth	—	1.984
Nitre	—	1.900
Vitriol	—	1.880
Alabafter	—	1.874
Horn	—	1.840
Ivory	—	1.820
Brimftone	—	1.800
Chalk	—	1.793
Borax	—	1.717
Alum	—	1.714
Clay	—	1.712
Dry bone	—	1.660

Human

Sect. IX. HYDROSTATICS.

161

Fig.

Human calculus	_____	1.542
Sand	_____	1.520
Gum arabic	_____	1.400
Opium	_____	1.350
Lignum vitæ	_____	1.327
Coal	_____	1.250
Jet	_____	1.238
Coral	_____	1.210
Ebony	_____	1.177
Pitch	_____	1.150
Mohogany	_____	1.063
Amber	_____	1.040
Brazil wood	_____	1.031
Boxwood	_____	1.030
Common water	_____	1.
Bees wax	_____	.955
Oak	_____	.920
Logwood	_____	.913
Ice	_____	.908
Beech	_____	.854
Ash	_____	.820
Yew	_____	.760
Elm	_____	.750
Crabtree	_____	.700
Plumbtree	_____	.663
Walnut-tree	_____	.631
Cedar	_____	.613
Fir	_____	.580
Cork	_____	.238

FLUIDS.

Quicksilver	_____	14.000
Oil of vitriol	_____	1.700
Oil of tartar	_____	1.550
Honey	_____	1.450
Spirit of nitre	_____	1.315
Aqua fortis	_____	1.300
Aqua regia	_____	1.234
Spirit of urine	_____	1.120

M

Human

HYDROSTATICS.

Human blood	_____	1.054
Sack	_____	1.033
Urine	_____	1.032
Milk	_____	1.031
Sea-water	_____	1.030
Serum of h. blood	_____	1.030
Ale	_____	1.028
Vinegar	_____	1.026
Common water	_____	1.
Distilled waters	_____	.993
Red wine	_____	.990
Lintseed oyl	_____	.932
Brandy	_____	.927
Oylolive	_____	.918
Spirit of turpentine	_____	.874
Spirit of wine	_____	.866
Oyl of turpentine	_____	.810
Common air	_____	.0012

In this table you have the mean specific gravities. For there is some difference in different pieces of the same sort of body; by reason of their different goodness, fineness, compactness, texture, dryness, being more or less free from mixture, &c. And sometimes by a greater degree of heat or cold, which affect all bodies a little. From whence there will arise a sensible difference in different parcels of the same sort of matter, in almost all bodies, whether solid or fluid.

P R O P. XCI.

The center of pressure of any plane sustaining a fluid pressing against it, is the same as the center of percussion; supposing the axis of motion to be at the intersection of this plane with the surface of the fluid.

The center of pressure is that point against which a force being applied equal and contrary to the whole pressure;

SECT. IX. HYDROSTATICS.

183

pressure; it will just sustain it, so as the body pressed on, will incline to neither side.

Let AF be the surface of the water, O the center of pressure; draw AO ; and parallel to AF , draw cbd . Then the pressure against any small part cd , is as cd and the depth of the fluid, that is as $cd \times Ab$. And the force to turn the plane about O , is $cd \times Ab \times bO$, or $cd \times Ab \times AO - cd \times Ab^2$. And the sum of them all must be equal to 0. Therefore $AO = \frac{\text{sum of all } cd \times Ab^2}{\text{sum of all } cd \times Ab}$; and therefore (by Prop. 57.) O is the same as the center of percussion. 133

Cor. 1. The center of pressure, upon a plane parallel to the horizon, or upon any plane where the pressure is uniform; is the same as the center of gravity of that plane.

For the pressure acts upon every part, in the same manner as gravity does.

Cor. 2. The quantity of pressure upon any plane surface; is equal to that of the same plane, placed parallel to the horizon, at the depth where its center of gravity is. And the same is true of any number of surfaces, taken together.

For the whole pressure is as the sum of all the $Ab \times cd$; and upon the whole figure placed at the center of gravity it is $ABC \times \text{distance of the center of gravity from } A$. But (by Cor. 3. Pr. 44.) these products are equal. And the same may be proved for several surfaces, or the surface of any solid, taking the center of gravity of all these surfaces.

M 2

PROP.

PROP. XCII.

To find the center of equilibrium of a body, or a system of bodies, immersed in a fluid.

The center of equilibrium is the same with respect to bodies immersed in a fluid, as the center of gravity is to bodies in free space: It is a certain point, upon which if the body or bodies be suspended, they will rest in any position.

67. Let A, B, C , be three bodies, or the quantities of matter in them; p, q, r , their relative gravities in the fluid; 1 = absolute gravity. Then pA, qB, rC are the weights of A, B, C in the fluid. Let G be the center of equilibrium. Then, by the same reasoning as in Prop. 47, the sum of the forces of A, B, C is $pA \times Aa + qB \times Bb + rC \times Cc = Gg \times pA + qB + rC$, the sum of the forces or weights when situated in G .
 Whence $Gg = \frac{Aa \times pA + Bb \times qB + Cc \times rC}{pA + qB + rC}$, the distance of the center of equilibrium from ST , in the fluid. And if any body as A is lighter than the fluid; then its relative gravity p will be negative. And if any body is situated on the other side of the plane, its distance from it must be taken negative.

Cor. If the body or bodies be homogeneous; the center of equilibrium is the same as the center of gravity.

S C H O L.

The relative gravity is found thus. Take the specific gravity of the fluid from that of the body, and divide the remainder by the specific gravity of the body. And these specific gravities are had by Pr. 90.

PROP.

P R O P. XCIII.

If a system of bodies oscillate in a fluid without resistance; to find the length of an isocronal pendulum vibrating in vacuo.

Because particles of different specific gravities placed in any given point, will require different times of vibrating in the fluid; therefore we must find the point where a particle of infinite density being placed will vibrate in the same time as the system: and this will be the center of oscillation. For this particle will lose nothing of its weight in the fluid; its relative gravity being the same as the absolute. Whence the vibrations of this particle will be performed in the same time as in vacuo.

Let A, B, C be three bodies, or their quantities of matter; p, q, r their relative gravities in the fluid; 1 = absolute gravity. Then pA, qB, rC are the weights of the bodies in the fluid. Let G be the center of equilibrium: and O the center of oscillation sought. Put $s = A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2$. Then (by the same reasoning and construction, as in Prop. 58.) the angular velocities which the bodies A, B, C generate in the system are, — $\frac{Se \times pA}{s}, \frac{Sn \times qB}{s}, \frac{Sd \times rC}{s}$, and the whole angular velocity generated by them all, is — $\frac{Se \times pA + Sn \times qB + Sd \times rC}{s}$.

Likewise the angular velocity which the particle P , situated in O , generates in the system is $\frac{Sr \times P}{P \times SO^2}$ or

$\frac{Sr}{SO^2}$. But their vibrations are performed alike: therefore their angular velocities must be equal. That is

FIG.
81.

$$-Se \times pA + Sn \times qB + Sd \times rC = \frac{Sr}{SO^2} = \frac{Sg}{SG \times SO}$$

$$\text{Whence } SO = \frac{Sq}{SG} \times \frac{1}{-se \times pA + Sn \times qB + Sd \times rC}$$

But (by Prop. 91.) $-Se \times pA + Sn \times qB + Sd \times rC = Sg \times pA + qB + rC$ therefore

$$SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SG \times pA + qB + rC}, \text{ the length of an isocronal pendulum, out of the fluid.}$$

Cor. 1. Hence if the bodies are homogeneous, then $p = q = r$; and $SO = \frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{p \times SG \times A + B + C}$.

Cor. 2. The system makes an exceeding small vibration in the fluid, at the same time that a simple pendulum whose length is $\frac{A \times SA^2 + B \times SB^2 + C \times SC^2}{SG \times pA + qB + rC}$, makes a vibration in vacuo.

For the velocity of the system being very small, the resistance is inconsiderable.

Cor. 3. Hence if SA be the length of a simple pendulum (A), vibrating in a fluid: then $\frac{SA}{p}$ is the length of an isocronal pendulum in vacuo.

For in a single body $SO = \frac{A \times SA^2}{SA \times pA}$ or $\frac{SA}{p}$.

Cor. 4. And if p be negative, or the pendulum specifically lighter than the fluid, the pendulum will turn upside down, and vibrate upwards in the fluid. And the length of an isocronal pendulum out of the fluid, will be $\frac{SA}{p}$, as before.

SCHOL.

SCHOL.

The center of percussion is the same in a fluid as out of it. For there is nothing concerned in that, but the quantities of matter and velocities: both which are the same in the fluid as out of it.

The relative quantities p , q , r are found by the Schol. of the last Prop.

PROP. XCIV.

If a fluid runs through any tube, pipe, or canal, and always fills it; its velocity in any place will be reciprocally as the section in that place.

Let AB , CD be two sections at A and C ; and let the quantity of the fluid $ABDC$, in a very small time, be translated into the part $abdc$ of the pipe. Draw Pp , Qq perpendicular to AB , CD or parallel to the motion of the fluid: then Pp , Qq being indefinitely small, will be the velocities of the fluid at P and Q , or the spaces described in that small part of time. Then, because the pipe is always full, the quantity $ABDC = abdc$. Take from both, the part $abDC$, which is common; and there remains $ABba = CDdc$, that is the section $APB \times Pp =$ section $CQD \times Qq$. 134

Cor. 1. The quantity of motion of the fluid in the pipe AD , at any section CD ; is equal to the motion of a cylinder of that fluid, whose base is CD , and length the same with the pipe from the beginning to that section, and velocity that of the fluid at CD .

For since the velocity in A is as $\frac{1}{APB}$, the motion
M 4 of

FIG. 134. of $ABba$ is $\frac{ABba}{APB}$, that is as Pp . And the motion of the whole, is as the sum of all the Pp , or the length of the pipe; without any regard to the diameter AB .

Cor. 2. The velocity and quantity of motion is the same very near in crooked tubes as in streight ones; and in pipes divided into several branches; taking the section of all the branches as the section of one tube.

P R O P. XCV.

135. In any pipe whose section is $ABCD$, the stress or force to split any part of the pipe at B , is equal to half the pressure of the fluid upon the plane BD , drawn perpendicular to the curve in B , and of the same length as that part of the pipe.

Let Ee be any small part of the surface; draw EO perpendicular to the curve Ee . Draw EN , en , perpendicular to BO , and er perp. to EN . And let OE represent the pressure of a particle of the fluid, then $EO \times Ee =$ pressure upon Ee . The force OE may be divided into the two ON , NE ; of which ON tends only to split the tube at A , but that in direction NE is the force to separate the parts at B . Therefore $EN \times Ee$ is the stress at B . But the triangles Eer , EON are similar. and $Ee \times EN = EO \times er$ or $EO \times Nn$. Therefore the part of the pressure on Ee , in direction NE , from whence the stress at B arises, is $= EO \times Nn$, that is $=$ to the pressure upon the plane Nn . Consequently the stress arising, from the pressure on BE is $=$ pressure on BN , and from the pressure on BA is $=$ pressure on BO . And the stress at D by the pressure on AD , is equal to the pressure on OD .

Also we suppose the same forces acting in the semicircle BCD : but these serve only to keep the forces, acting upon BAD , in equilibrio.

Cor.

Cor. 1. The stress on any part of a pipe full of water is as the diameter of the pipe, and the perpendicular, height of the water above that place. And consequently the thickness of the metal ought to be in that ratio.

Cor. 2. In any concave surface, cask, or vessel, generated by revolving round an axis, and filled with a fluid; the stress as to splitting is equal to half the pressure upon the plane passing through its axis. And the stress on both sides at B and D, equal to the whole pressure on that plane.

Cor. 3. Hence the internal pressure on any length of the pipe, is to the stress it suffers as to splitting :: as $2 \times 3 \cdot 1416$, to 1.

Cor. 4. Hence it follows, that the stress, arising from any pressure upon any part, to split it longitudinally, transversely, or in any direction, is equal to the pressure upon a plane drawn perpendicular to the line of direction. Thus the stress arising from the pressure on BE is = pressure on BN.

Cor. 5. And if the pipe be flexible; it will, by the pressure, be put into a cylindrical form; or such that the section is a circle.

For if BD be greater than AC, there will be a greater pressure in direction OA than in direction OB. And the greater pressure will drive out the sides A and C, till AC become equal to BD; and ABCD be a circle. Besides, a circle is more capacious than any other figure. And if a pipe be not flexible, yet the pressure of the fluid will always endeavour to put it into a circular figure.

Cor. 6. And if an elastic compressed fluid be inclosed in a vessel, flexible, and capable of being distended every way;

FIG. way; it will form itself into a sphere, for the same reason.

P R O P. XCVI.

136. If a close flexible tube AB full of air be immersed wholly or in part in the water $CDEF$; the force to split it, in any place O , is proportional to AO , its height from A .

For the air compressed at A is in equilibrio with the external pressure of the water. At B and O the air is in the same compressed state as in A , but the external pressure at B is less by the weight of the column of water AB : And at any place O , the external pressure is less than in A , by the weight of AO . therefore the internal pressure at O exceeds the external, by the weight of the column of water AO . And the stress at O is as that excess.

Cor. 1. The stress is greatest at the top BG , and at A is nothing.

Cor. 2. If the tube be inflexible; the stress will be according to the state of the compressed air within it. If the air within be the same as the external air at B , then the stress at O is as BO . If it be less than the external air, the increase of the stress will be also as BO ; acting at the outside. If it be of very great density, the increase of stress at O is as AO .

For the pressure within is uniform; but without, it is as the depth of the water.

P R O P.

P R O P. XCVII.

The quantity of a fluid flowing in any time through a hole in the bottom or side of a vessel, always kept full; is equal to a cylinder whose base is the area of the hole, and its length the space a body will describe in that time, with the velocity acquired by falling through half the height of the liquor above the hole.

Let ADB be a vessel of water, B the hole, and take $BC = BD$ the height of the water. And let the cylinder of water BC fall by its weight through half DB , and it will by that fall, acquire such a motion, as to pass through DB or BC uniformly in the same time, by Cor. 3. Prop. 14. But (by Prop. 83, and Cor. 2.) the water in the orifice B is pressed with the weight of a column of water whose base is B and height BD or BC ; therefore this pressure is equal to the weight of the cylinder BC . But equal forces generate equal motions. Therefore the pressure at B , will generate the same motion in the spouting water, as was generated by the weight of the cylinder of water BC . Therefore in the time of falling through half DB , a cylinder of water will spout out, whose length (or the space passed uniformly over) is BC or BD . And in the same time repeated, another equal cylinder BC will flow out, and in a third part of time, a third, &c. therefore the length of the whole cylinder run out, will be proportional to the time, and consequently the velocity of the water at B is uniform. Therefore in any time the length of a cylinder of water spouting out, will be equal to the length described in that time, with the velocity acquired by falling through half DB .

Cor. 1. Hence in the time of falling through half DB , a quantity of the fluid runs out, equal to a cylinder whose base is the hole: and length, the height of the fluid above the hole.

Cor.

FIG.

138.

Cor. 2. The velocity in the hole B is uniform, and is equal to that a heavy body acquires by falling through half DB.

Cor. 3. But at a small distance without the hole, the stream is contracted into a less diameter, and its velocity increased; so that if a fluid spout through a hole made in a thin plate of metal, it acquires a velocity nearly equal to that, which a heavy body acquires by falling the whole height of the stagnant fluid above the hole.

For since the fluid converges from all sides towards the center of the hole *BF*; and all the particles endeavouring to go on in right lines, but meeting one another at the hole, they will compress one another. And this compression being every where directed to the axis of the spouting cylinder; the parts of the fluid will endeavour to converge to a point, by which means the fluid will form itself into a sort of a conical figure at some distance from the hole, as *BEGF*. By this lateral compression, the particles near the sides of the hole are made to describe curve lines as *HE*, *KG*; and by the direct compression, the fluid from the hole is accelerated outwards at *EG*; and thus the stream will be contracted at *E*, in the ratio of about $\sqrt{2}$ to 1, and the velocity increased in the same ratio.

It must be observed however, that the particles of the fluid don't alway move right forward; but near the hole, often in spiral lines. For no body can instantly change its course in an angle, but must do it gradually, in some curve line.

Cor. 4. The fluid at the same depth, spouts out nearly with the same velocity, upwards, downwards, sideways, or in any direction. And if it spout vertically, ascends nearly to the upper surface of the fluid.

Cor.

Cor. 5. The velocities of the fluid, spouting out at different depths, are as the square roots of the depths.

For the velocities of falling bodies are as the square roots of the heights.

Cor. 6. Hence if $s = 16 \frac{1}{2}$ feet, $D =$ depth of the vessel to the center of the hole, $F =$ area of the hole, all in feet, $t =$ time in seconds. Then the quantity of water running out in the time t , by this Prop. will be $tF\sqrt{2Ds}$ feet, or $6.128 tF\sqrt{2Ds}$ ale gallons.

SCHOL.

There are several irregularities in spouting fluids arising from the resistance of the air, the friction of the tubes, the bigness and shape of the vessel, or of the hole, &c. A fluid spouts farthest through a thin plate; if it spout through a tube, instead of a plate, it will not spout so far; partly from the friction, and partly because the stream does not converge so much, or grow smaller. A jet d'eau spouts higher, if its direction be a little inclined from the perpendicular; because the water in the uppermost part of the jet, falls down upon the lower part and stops its motion. We find by experience, a fluid never spouts to the full height of the water above the hole; but in small heights fall short of it, by spaces, which are as the squares of the heights of the fluid. And all bodies projected upwards, fall short of these projected in vacuo, by spaces which are in the same ratio; from the resistance of the air.

By experiments, if the height of a reservoir be 5 feet, a jet will fall an inch short; and the defect will be as the square of the height of the reservoir. But small jets fail more than in that proportion, from the greater resistance of the air.

P R O P.

PROP. XCVIII.

If a notch or slit, $fgbi$, in form of a parallelogram, be cut out of the side of a vessel full of water, ADE ; the quantity of water flowing out of it, will be $\frac{2}{3}$ the quantity flowing out of an equal orifice, placed at the whole depth gi , or at the base, bi , in the same time. The vessel being supposed, to be always kept full.

For draw the parabola, gob , whose axis is gi , and base bi , and ordinate ro ; then since the velocity of the fluid at any place r , is as $\sqrt{gr}$, (by Cor. 5. of the last Prop.) that is (by the nature of the parabola) as the ordinate ro ; therefore ro will represent the quantity discharged at the depth or section rn . Also bi will represent the quantity discharged at the depth or base bi . Consequently the sum of all the ordinates ro , or the area of the parabola, will represent the quantity discharged at all the places rn . And the sum of all the lines bi or rn , or the area of the parallelogram $fgbi$, will represent the quantity discharged by all the sections rn , placed as low as the base bi . But the parabola is to the parallelogram, as $\frac{2}{3}$ to 1.

Cor. 1. Let $s = 16 \frac{1}{4}$ feet. $D = gi$, the depth of the slit. $F =$ area of the slit, $fgbi$. Then the quantity flowing out in any time or number of seconds t , is $= \frac{2}{3} tF\sqrt{2Ds}$. This follows from Cor. 6. of the last Prop.

Cor. 2. The quantity of fluid discharged through the hole $rnbi$, is to the quantity which would be discharged through an equal hole placed as low as bi , as the parabolic segment $rcbi$, to the rectangle $rnbi$. This appears from the reasoning in this proposition.

SECT.

S E C T. X.

The resistance of fluids, their forces and actions upon bodies; the motion of ships, and position of their sails.

P R O P. XCIX.

A body descending in a fluid, adds a quantity of weight to the fluid, equal to the resistance it meets with in falling.

For the resistance is equal to the gravity lost by the body. And because action and reaction are equal and contrary, the gravity lost by the body is equal to that gained by the fluid. Therefore the resistance is equal to the gravity gained by the fluid.

Cor. 1. If a body ascend in a fluid; it diminishes the gravity of the fluid, by a quantity equal to the resistance it meets with.

Cor. 2. This increase of weight arising from the resistance, is over and above the additional weight mentioned in Cor. 1. Prop. 85.

Cor. 3. If a heterogenous body descend in a fluid; it will endeavour to move with its center of gravity foremost, leaving the center of gravity of as much of the fluid, behind.

For

FIG.

For the side towards the center of gravity, contains more matter, and will more easily make its way thro' the fluid; and be less retarded in it.

PROP. C.

If any body moves through a fluid; the resistance it meets with is as the square of its velocity.

For the resistance is as the number of particles struck, and the velocity with which one particle is struck. But the number of particles of the fluid which are struck in any time, is as the velocity of the body. Therefore the whole resistance is as the square of the velocity.

Cor. 1. The resistances of similar bodies moving in any fluids, are as the squares of their diameters, the squares of their velocities, and the densities of the fluids.

For the number of particles struck are as the squares of the diameters, and the densities of the fluids.

Cor. 2. If two bodies A, B, with the same velocity, meet with the resistances p and q; their velocities will be as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{p}}$ and $\frac{1}{\sqrt{q}}$, when they meet with equal resistances.

For let b, r be the given velocity and resistance; v, x any other velocity and resistance. Then $bb : x :: vv : r$. And $vv = \frac{bbr}{x}$, and since b and r are given,

v is as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{x}}$.

PROP.

P R O P. CI.

The center of resistance of any plane moving directly forward in a fluid, is the same as the center of gravity.

The center of resistance is that point, to which if a contrary force be applied, it shall just sustain the resistance.

Now the resistance is equal upon all equal parts of the plane, and therefore the resistance acts upon the plane after the same manner and with the same forces as gravity does; therefore the center of both the resistance and gravity must be the same.

Cor. 1. In any body moving thro' a fluid; the line of direction of its motion will pass through the center of resistance and center of gravity of the body.

For if it do not, the forces arising from the weight and resistance will not ballance one another, which will cause the body to librate or oscillate in the fluid; till by degrees the situation of these two centers will fall into the line of their motion.

Cor. 2. And for the same reason; if a globe, moving in a fluid, oscillates or turns round its axis; that side, which in oscillating moves against the fluid, suffers a greater force or resistance; and therefore the body is driven from that part, and made to recede from that side, and deflect to the other side; and perhaps describe a curve line in the fluid.

P R O P. CII.

If a non tenacious fluid, such as the wind, &c. move against the sail SA or any plane surface, in direction WS; it
N
shall

FIG.

139.

shall urge it in a direction WA perpendicular to its surface, with a force, which is the square of the velocity, the square of the sine of the angle of incidence, the magnitude of the sail, and the density of the fluid.

Draw WA , AC perpendicular to SA , SW ; and the force of the fluid upon SA , is as the force of one particle, and the number of them falling on SA .

But (by Cor. 1. Pr. 9.) the force of one particle is as its velocity $\times S$. Incidence WSA .

And the number of them (supposing the density to be given) is as their velocity $\times CA$, or (supposing the sail SA given) as the velocity $\times S.WSA$. Therefore the force of the fluid upon the sail SA , is as the square of the velocity and the square of the sine of WSA .

Increase the density of the fluid, and the magnitude of the sail, in any ratio; and it's evident the force of the fluid against the sail, will be increased in the same ratio.

140.

Cor. 1. And if a thin body move in a fluid at rest; the same law holds in respect of the resistance it meets with in the direction perp. to its surface.

141.

Cor. 2. If a fluid with a given velocity move in direction WS , against the sail SA ; its force to move the sail in any given direction SB , is as the square of the $S.WSA \times$ by the $S.ASB$. And if WSB be a right angle, as $S.WSA \times$ sine of twice WSA .

For let SD , DB be perp. to SA , SB . Then SD is the whole force acting at S , and SB the force in direction SB , and SB is as $S.SDB$ or ASB . And if ASB be the comp. of WSA , then $S.WSA \times \cos. WSA$ is as S . twice WSA , by trigonometry.

Cor. 3. The force of a fluid in direction WS , to move the sail or body SA in the same direction WS ; is (ceteris paribus) as the cube of the sine of incidence WSA .

For

For then *WSB* will be one continued streight line.

Cor. 4. But the force of a given stream of a fluid, against any sail *SA*, to move it perpendicular to its surface, is simply as the *S.* angle of incidence: But to move it in the same direction with itself; as the square of the *S.* incidence: all things else remaining the same.

This follows from *Cor. 1.* *Prop. IX.* and *Cor. 2.* of this.

S C H O L.

If the fluid be tenacious it will urge the body in the same direction with itself, and with a force which is as the sine of incidence: or universally, as the sine of incidence, the square of the velocity, the magnitude of the sail, and density of the fluid. 140.

For by reason of the tenacity of the fluid, the sail is acted by both the forces *WA*, *AS*, which are equivalent to *WS*.

P R O P. CIII.

If a very thin and light body *SA*, plain on both sides, be placed in a very dense fluid, which moves in direction *WS*; and the body can make little or no way through the fluid, but only in the direction of its length *SA*. And if the body be obliged to move parallel to itself in a given direction *SD*. I say the body will be so moved in the fluid, that its absolute velocity will be $= \frac{S.WSA}{S.ASD} \times \text{velocity of the fluid.}$ 142.

Draw *DT* parallel to *AS*, and produce *WS* to *T*. Then whilst a part of the fluid moves from *S* to *T*, the body will be moved into the line *TD*; and since *SD* is the direction of its motion, the point *S* will be found

FIG. in *D*. And therefore the velocities of the fluid, and
 142. of the body, will be as *ST* to *SD*; that is, as *S.TDS*
 or *DSA*, to *S.STD* or *WSA*.

Cor. 1. If *WS* the direction of the fluid, is perpendicular to *SD* the direction of the body; then the velocity of the body *SA* will be = *Tan. WSA* × velocity of the fluid.

For $\frac{S.WSA}{S.ASD} = \frac{S.WSA}{\text{cof. } WSA} = \text{Tan. } WSA$, radius
 being = 1.

Cor. 2. And hence if the body *SA* continually turn round an axis parallel to *WS*; then the velocity of *SA* in direction perp. to *WS*, will be as the *Tan.WSA* × velocity of the fluid.

For *SA*. in this case will always have the same position to the direction of the fluid, as before.

143. Cor. 3. If a very thin body *SA* be obliged to move parallel to itself through a very dense fluid at rest; and if it be drawn with a given velocity in direction always parallel to *SW*. Its absolute velocity in the fluid will be reciprocally as the *cof.WSA*, and in direction *SA*.

Draw *AC* perp. to *SW*. then by reason of the density and resistance of the fluid, the body will not be able to move laterally, but only in direction *SA*. But the velocities of the point *S* in directions *SW*, *SA*, are as *SC* to *SA*, or as *cof. CSA* to *rad.* therefore vel. in direction *SA* = $\frac{\text{radius}}{\text{cof. } CSA} \times \text{vel. in direction } SW$.

P R O P.

P R O P. CIV.

If a plane surface SA , moving parallel to itself, with velocity and direction SD , be acted upon by a fluid moving with velocity and direction WS . And if WF be drawn parallel and equal to SD ; and FS drawn. I say the fluid acts upon the plane in the angle FSA , with the relative velocity FS .

For compleat the parallelogram $WSDF$; and let the body be at rest, and the fluid move with the contrary motion DS or FW ; and then their relative motions will be the same as before: And the fluid will have the two motions FW , FD in respect of the body SA at rest. Therefore (by Cor. 2. Pr. 7.) the motion compounded out of these is FS ; which is the absolute motion of the fluid supposing the body at rest; or the relative motion of it, in respect of the moving body; and therefore acts on it in the angle FSA .

Cor. If F fall in the line SA , then the fluid acts not at all upon the body. And if it fall on the contrary side of it; then the fluid acts on the contrary side of the body SA .

P R O P. CV.

Let SA be the sail of a ship, SD the position of the keel; SK , DK perpendicular to SA , SD . And if DE , DS be as the resistances the ship has ahead and aside with equal velocities: and if DC is a mean proportional between DE and DK , then SC will be the way of the ship, nearly.

For let SK perpendicular to SA represent the force of the wind upon the sail. The force SK is resolved into the forces SD , DK ; SD is the direct force, and

N 3

DK

FIG.

145.

DK the force producing her lee way. By Prop. 100,
 Her resist. a head with velocity SD : resist. a-
 head with vel. $DE :: SD^2 : DE^2$,
 And resist. ahead with vel. DE : resist. aside with
 vel. $DE :: DE : SD$,
 And resist. aside with vel. DE : resist. aside with
 vel. $DC :: DE^2 : DC^2$.

Therefore ex equo

Resist. ahead with vel. SD : resist. aside with vel.
 $DC :: SD^2 \times DE^2 : DE^2 \times SD \times DC^2 :: SD \times DE : DC^2$.

But the resistances are as the forces producing them,
 therefore $SD : DK :: SD \times DE : DC^2 = DE \times DK$.

*Cor. 1. Let r = ships resistance ahead, R = ships re-
 sistance aside, with the same velocity. Then $R : r :: ra-
 dius \times \cotan. ASD : \tan. \text{square of } DSC, \text{ the leeway.}$*

For let $\text{rad.} = 1$. $\tan. DSK = t$. then $1 : t :: SD : DK = t \times SD$; and $SD : DC$ or $\sqrt{DE \times DK}$ or
 $\sqrt{t \times SD \times DE} :: 1 : \tan. DSC = \sqrt{\frac{t \times DE}{SD}}$.

*Cor. 2. Hence the tangent of the leeway, in the same
 ship, is as the the square root of the cotangent of the
 angle ASD, which the sail makes with the keel. There-
 fore if the leeway be known for any position of the sail,
 it will be known for all.*

S C H O L.

The leeway of a ship is generally something more
 than is here assigned; because her hull and rigging will
 make her drive a little to leeward, directly from the
 wind.

P R O P.

P R O P. CVI.

If the wind with a given velocity, in direction WS , fall on the sail SA of a ship, making little or no leeway; it will urge the ship in direction of the keel SD , with a force which is as $S.WSA^2 \times S.ASD$.

Draw SC perpendicular to SA , and CD to SD . And (by Prop. 102.) the force acting upon the sail in direction SC is as the square of the sine of WSA . But the forces in directions SC and SD are as SC to SD , or as radius 1 to the sine of SCD or ASD . Therefore the force in direction $SD = S.ASD \times$ force in direction $SC = S.ASD \times S^2.WSA$.

Cor. 1. The force acting in direction DC perpendicular to the keel is as $S.WSA^2 \times \cos. ASD$.

Cor. 2. The force in direction SD will be universally as $S.WSA^2 \times S.ASD$, and the square of the velocity of the wind, and magnitude of the sail.

Cor. 3. The velocity of the ship in direction SD , is as $S.WSA \times \sqrt{S.ASD} \times$ velocity of the wind.

For the square of the velocity of the ship in any direction, is as the resistance in the water, or (its equal) the force of the wind upon the sail in that direction; that is (by Cor. 2.) as $S.WSA^2 \times S.ASD$, and the square of the velocity of the wind. The density and sail being given.

Cor. 4. Let the angle WSA be given. And if SDC be a semicircle described on any line SC ; then the force in any direction SD of the keel, is as the cord SD ; and the velocity as $\sqrt{SD}$.

FIG.

146.

Cor. 5. *The velocity of the ship to windward is as $S.WSA \times \sqrt{S.ASD} \times \cos. WSD$.*

For draw SP perp. to WS , and DG to SP ; and the velocities in directions SD , GD are as SD to GD ; or as radius 1 to $S.DSG$: therefore the velocity in $GD = S.DSG \times S.WSA \times \sqrt{S.ASD}$.

Cor. 6. *The force of the sail $S.A$ to turn the ship about, is as $S.WSA^2 \times \cos. ASD$.*

This appears by Cor. 1. supposing the sail placed in the head of the ship.

P R O P, CVII.

If a stream of any fluid, as water, flows directly against any plane surface; its force against that plane, is equal to the weight of a column of the fluid, whose base is the section of the stream; and its length twice the height descended by a falling body, to acquire the velocity of the fluid.

Let $s = 16 \frac{1}{2}$ feet, the height descended by a falling body in 1 second.

v = velocity of the fluid, or the space it describes in one second.

B = base of the cylinder or column of water.

Then $2s$ = velocity generated by gravity in falling through s . therefore (by Cor. 1. Pr. 14),

$4ss : s :: vv : \frac{vv}{4s}$ = height fallen to gain the velocity v .

and $\frac{vv}{2s}$ = twice that height. Also $\frac{vv}{2s} B =$ a cylinder of twice that height.

Now

Now the motion which the cylinder's weight will generate in 1 second is $2s \times \frac{vv}{2s} B$ or vvB . the mo-

tion being as the body $\times$ by the velocity. And the force of the fluid against the plane is equal to the resistance of the plane. And the motion destroyed in 1 second by the resistance of the plane is $v \times Bv$ or vvB ; which was also the motion generated by the weight of the cylinder $\frac{vv}{2s} B$, in the same time. But equal forces in the same time generate or destroy equal motions. Therefore the weight of the cylinder $\frac{vv}{2s} B =$ force of the fluid against the plane.

Cor. 1. The force of a stream of water against any plane is equal to the weight of a column of water, whose base is the section of the stream, and height $\frac{vv}{2s}$; or the height of the water, if it flow through a hole at the bottom of a reservoir.

Cor. 2. Moreover if any part of the water lye upon the plane; the force will be augmented by the weight of so much water.

Cor. 3. The forces of different streams of water against any plane, are as their sections and the squares of the velocities.

Cor. 4. If the plane be also in motion; the relative velocity of the water against the plane, must be taken instead of the absolute velocity.

S C H O L.

A cubic foot of water contains 6,128 ale gallons, and weighs $62 \frac{1}{2}$ lb. av.

LEMMA

FIG.

147.

L E M M A.

If the quadrant EDA revolve about the radius CA, and describe an hemisphere; and from all the points of its surface, as D, d, perpendiculars DB, db, be let fall upon the base EC. I say the sum of all the perpendiculars BD, in the surface EDA, is to the sum of as many radii CD; as 1 to 2.

For take Dd infinitely small, and compleat the square $CAHN$, and draw CH , also draw $DFGR$, $dfgr$ parallel to EC . By the similar triangles CDF , Dnd , $DF \times Dd = CD \times nd$; also $BD = CF = FG$.

The surface of the spherical annulus $DdfF$ is $3.1416 \times 2DF \times Dd$ or $3.1416 \times 2CD \times nd$, that is (because $3.1416 \times 2CD$ is given) as nd or Ff . And the sum of all the BD 's in the annulus is as $BD \times$ by its surface, that is as $BD \times Ff$, or $FG \times Ff$. Therefore the sum of all the BD 's in the annulus is expressed by the area $FfgG$. And for the same reason, the sum of as many radii, by $FfrR$. Therefore the sum of all the BD 's in the hemisphere: is to the sum of as many radii :: as the sum of all the $FfgG$: to the sum of all the $FfrR$:: that is as the triangle CAH : to the square $CAHN$, or as 1 to 2.

P R O P. CVIII.

148. *If a cylinder moves uniformly forward, in direction of its axis, in a fluid of the same density; it meets with a resistance equal to the force which can generate its motion, in the time it describes twice its length.*

Let AB be the cylinder moving from A towards G ; and take $FBCG$ equal to $ASBF$. And let us first suppose that the cylinder AB , whilst it moves forward, pushes

pushes against the several parts of the fluid, and drives them successively before it, in direction of its axis, from the several places through which it passes. So that in equal times it moves equal quantities of the fluid, and communicates to them the same velocity that it moves with. It is evident that the cylinder, after it has moved uniformly forward, the length of its axis, has removed the cylinder of the fluid *FBCG* equal to itself *ASBF*, and has communicated a motion to it, equal to its own. And since action and reaction are equal, the force that uniformly generated this motion, is equal to the uniform resistance the cylinder suffered in the mean time. And therefore the resistance is equal to the force by which its motion can be generated, in the time it describes its length.

All this is true upon supposition that every particle of the fluid is driven directly forward with the same velocity the cylinder has. But since in reality, the motion generated in the fluid is not directly forward, but (by Prop. 80.) diverges on all sides, and in all manner of directions *CD*, *Cd*, &c. therefore if the quadrant *AE* be divided into an infinite number of equal parts, *Dd*, and to all the points *D*, *d* the radii *CD*, *Cd*, &c. be drawn representing the motions of the particles in all directions; and from any one *D*, the perpendicular *DB* be drawn on *EC*. Then the motion *CD* ($= CA$) is resolved into the two motions *CB*, *BD*; of which *CB* does not affect the cylinder; and the direct motion of the particle *D* is only *BD*, which is less than *CD*. Therefore the force to generate this motion, and consequently the resistance of a particle at *D* (equal to this force) must be less than before in proportion of *CD* to *BD*. Therefore the former resistance, when all the particles are driven directly forward; is to the resistance when they diverge on all sides; as the sum of all the radii *CD*, drawn to every point of the surface of a sphere, to the sum of all the corresponding sines *BD*; that is (by the Lem.) as 2 to 1. Therefore the resistance the cylinder

FIG.
148.

147.

147.
148.

FIG. cylinder meets with now is but half the former resistance. Consequently, since the force to generate any motion is reciprocally as the time; the resistance will be equal to the force that can generate its motion, in the time that it describes twice its length.

148. *Cor. 1. If a cylinder moves in direction of its axis, in a fluid of the same density, and with the velocity acquired by falling in vacuo, from a height equal to its length: It meets with a resistance equal to its weight.*

For the force that generates its motion, in the time of its moving twice its length (or of falling through once its length), is its gravity.

Cor. 2. If a cylinder moves uniformly forward in any fluid; its resistance is to the force by which its whole motion may be generated, in the time of moving twice its length; as the density of the fluid, to the density of the cylinder.

For if the density of the fluid be increased in any ratio; the resistance will be increased in the same ratio.

Cor. 3. The resistance of a cylinder moving in any fluid, is equal to the weight of a cylinder of that fluid, of the same base, and its length equal to the height a body falls in vacuo, to acquire its velocity. By Cor. 1.

Cor. 4. Let $s = 16 \frac{1}{2}$ feet, $B =$ base of the cylinder, $v =$ its velocity, or the space described in 1 second. Then its resistance is $=$ weight of the cylinder $\frac{vv}{4s} B$, of the fluid.

SCHOL.

If the cylinder move in a fluid inclosed in a vessel; instead of the absolute velocity, the relative velocity
in

Sect. X. OF FLUIDS.

in the fluid must be taken, in order to find the resistance. And besides if the vessel be narrow, the resistance will be increased more or less, because the fluid, being confined by the vessel, cannot then diverge in all directions. And if it be so confined, that it cannot diverge at all, but is obliged to move directly forward; the resistance then will be double; which is the greatest it can possibly have, or the utmost limit of its resistance. Also by comparing the last Cor. with Cor. 1. Prop. 107. it appears that the force of a cylinder of water against a plane, is double the resistance an equal cylinder would meet with, moving in water with the same velocity. And this will not appear strange, when we consider that in the first case the whole motion of the water is destroyed by the resistance of the plane; but in the latter case, the water diverges every way from the moving cylinder, and does not partake of its direct motion. But if the water was not suffered to diverge, but was driven directly forward with the motion of the cylinder, the resistance would then be doubled; and these two cases would become the same.

LEMMA.

If the quadrant ADE revolve about the radius CA, and generate an hemisphere; and on every point B of the base, perpendiculars BD be drawn. I say the sum of all the BD^2 on the base, is to the sum of as many CD^2 , as 1 to 2.

Let $CD = r$, $CB = x$, $BD = y$, $c = 3.1416$; then $2cx =$ circumference of BC . Then

The sum of all the rr : to sum of all the yy , in the annulus Bb , is as $2cx \times rr : 2cx \times yy :: rrx : yyx$.

And sum of all the rr : sum of all the yy in the hemisphere,

Is as sum $rrx \times Bb : \text{sum } yyx \times Bb$ on the base;

Or as sum of $rrx \times Bb : \text{sum of } rr - xx \times x \times Bb$,

Or as the the sum of $rrx \times Bb : \text{sum } rrx \times Bb - \text{sum } x^3 \times Bb$, in the base; But

FIG.

148.

147.

RESISTANCE.

FIG.

147.

† But the sum of all the $x \times Bb =$

$$\frac{1 + 2 + 3 + 4 \text{ &c. to } r \times 1}{2} = \frac{1}{2} rr.$$

† And sum of all the $rrx \times Bb = \frac{1}{2} r^4$. putting $Bb = 1$.† Also the sum of all the $x^3 \times Bb =$

$$\frac{1^3 + 2^3 + 3^3 + 4^3 \text{ &c. to } r^3 \times 1}{4} = \frac{1}{4} r^4.$$

Therefore the sum of all the rr : sum of all the yy , in the hemisphere; is as $\frac{1}{2} r^4 : \frac{1}{4} r^4 = \frac{1}{2} r^4$, or as $\frac{1}{2}$ to $\frac{1}{4}$, that is 2 to 1.

† See *Ward's Math. Guide*, Part V.

PROP. CIX.

If a globe move uniformly forward in a compressed infinite fluid; its resistance is to the force by which its whole motion may be destroyed or generated in the time of describing $\frac{2}{3}$ parts of its diameter; as the density of the fluid, to the density of the globe, very nearly.

149.

Let the globe move in the direction CA . Draw the tangent DH , and BDG parallel to CA ; and GH perpendicular to DH ; and let GD be the force of a particle of the fluid against the base B , in direction GD : Then GH will be the force acting against D , in direction DC . And this force is to the force in direction GD as DC to DB . Whence the force against B , is to the force against D , in direction GD ; in a ratio compounded of GD to GH , and DC to DB ; that is as DC^2 to DB^2 . Therefore the force of all the particles of the fluid, against the base, is to their force against the convex surface; as the sum of all the DC^2 , to the sum of all the DB^2 on the base; that is (by the Lem.) as 2 to 1. Therefore the resistance of the surface of the sphere is but half the resistance of the base, or of a cylinder of the same diameter.

Now the globe is to the circumscribing cylinder as 2 to 3; and half of that force (which can destroy all the motion of this cylinder, whilst it describes 2 diameters) will destroy all its motion, whilst it describes

4 dia-

Sect. X. OF FLUIDS.

191

FIG.

149.

4 diameters. And therefore the same force that destroys the cylinder's motion, in the time of moving 4 diameters, will destroy the globe's motion whilst it moves $\frac{2}{3}$ of this length, or $\frac{2}{3}$ of its own diameter. But (by Cor. 2. Pr. 108.) half the resistance of the cylinder, that is the resistance of the globe, is to this force; as the density of the fluid, to the density of the cylinder or globe.

Cor. 1. The resistance of a sphere is but half the resistance of a cylinder, of the same diameter.

Cor. 2. The resistance of a globe moving in any fluid, is equal to the weight of a cylinder of that fluid, of the same diameter; and its length equal to half the height, through which a body falls in vacuo, to acquire the velocity of the globe. By Cor. 3. Pr. 108.

Therefore if $s = 16 \frac{1}{2}$ feet, $v =$ velocity of a globe, or the space it moves in 1 second; $D =$ its diameter; then its resistance is equal to the weight of a cylinder of the fluid, of the same diameter D , and its length $\frac{vv}{8s}$. And if

$v = 4 \sqrt{\frac{Ds}{3}}$, its resistance is equal to the weight of an equal globe of the fluid.

Cor. 3. The greatest velocity a globe can obtain, by descending in a fluid; is that which it would acquire by falling in vacuo, through a space that is to $\frac{2}{3}$ the diameter; as the difference between the density of the globe and the density of the fluid, is to the density of the fluid.

For let G, F be the densities of the globe and the fluid; D the diameter of the globe. Then since a globe is equal to a cylinder whose height is $\frac{2}{3} D$; therefore the weight of the globe = weight of a cylinder

FIG.
149.

cylinder of the fluid, whose length is $\frac{2}{3} D \times \frac{G}{F}$. And (by Prop. 85.) the weight of the globe in the fluid is = weight of a cylinder of the fluid, whose length is $\frac{2}{3} D \times \frac{G-F}{F}$. But (by Cor. 2.) the resistance of the globe moving with the velocity acquired by falling in vacuo through the height $\frac{4}{3} D \times \frac{G-F}{F}$ is = weight of a cylinder of the fluid whose length is $\frac{2}{3} D \times \frac{G-F}{F}$. Therefore the weight of the globe in the fluid is equal to the resistance: And consequently it cannot accelerate the globe.

And hence if $v = 4 \sqrt{\frac{G-F}{3F}} Ds$, the resistance is equal to the weight of the globe in the fluid.

Cor. 4. Two equal and homogeneous globes moving in a resisting medium; will, in times that are reciprocally as the first velocities, describe equal spaces; and lose a given part of their motions.

For the motion lost, in describing two very small equal spaces, is as the resistance and time; that is (because the space is given) as the square of the velocity directly and the velocity inversely; that is directly as the velocity. And so in describing any spaces, the motion lost will always be as the first motion; and the time reciprocally as the first velocity.

Cor. 5. Two homogeneous globes, moving with equal velocities in a fluid; lose equal velocities in describing spaces proportional to their diameters.

For the velocity lost in each, by describing two
small

small spaces proportional to the diameters; will be as the resistance and time directly, and the body inversely; that is (because the resistance is as the square of the diameter, and the time as the diameter) as the cube of the diameter directly, and the cube of the diameter inversely: Therefore the velocity lost is equal in both. And the like for any succeeding correspondent parts.

FIG.
149.

S C H O L I U M.

The resistance of fluids is of three kinds. 1. *Tenacity* or *Cohesion* of the parts of the liquor, which is the force by which the particles of the fluid stick together, and cause them not to separate easily; and this is the same for all velocities. 2. *Friction* or *attrition* where the parts of the fluid don't slide freely by one another; and this is as the velocity. 3. The *density* or *quantity of matter* to be removed; and this is as the square of the velocity. The two former kinds are very small in all fluids, except viscid and glutinous ones: and upon this account the foregoing theory regards only the last kind. And therefore the resistance there described is the very least the body can possibly meet with. But since all fluids have some small degree of friction and tenacity, they will increase the resistance a little. Also when the velocity is very great; the compression of the fluid ought to be so too, to cause the fluid to return with equal ease behind the moving body; and when this does not happen, the resistance is increased upon that account. For a fluid yielding to a projectile, does not recede ad infinitum; but with a circular motion, comes round to the places which the body leaves. Likewise when bodies move in a stagnant fluid near the surface; the fluid cannot dilate itself upwards, to give way to the moving body; and this will considerably increase the resistance. Also if a body moves in a fluid inclosed in a vessel; the relative velocity of the body in the fluid must be esteemed its true velocity.

FIG. city. But the resistance it meets with will be increased, because the fluid has not liberty to diverge every way. And the straiter the vessel, the more is the resistance increased; and it may by this means be increased till it be near double; beyond which it cannot go. For all that a body can do is to drive the fluid wholly before it, without any diverging. So that the least resistance a globe can have is the same as is laid down in Cor. 2. of the last Prop. and the greatest can never exceed the double of it; so that it will always be between these limits. If the fluid in which the body moves be elastic and spring from the body, the resistance will be greater than if it was non elastic. But these irregularities are not considered in the foregoing theory.

There are some bodies that may be reckoned in a middle state between solids and fluids. And in some of these the tenacity and friction is so great, as in many cases far to exceed the resistance arising from their density only.

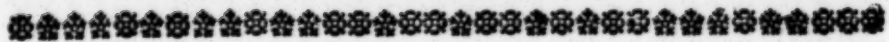
For example. It appears by experiments, that if a hard body be suspended at several heights, and be let fall upon any soft substance, such as tallow, soft clay, wax, snow, &c. it will make pits or impressions, which are as the heights fallen, that is as the squares of the velocities. Likewise nails give way to a hammer in a ratio which is as the square of the velocity. Comparing this with Schol. Pr. 14. it appears that in these cases, the resistance is the same for all velocities: which argues a very great degree of tenacity. Again, bodies projected into earth mixed with stones; the impressions are found to be between the simple and duplicate ratio of the velocities. Therefore in this case, the resistance is in a less ratio than the simple ratio of the velocity: and therefore these sort of bodies have both friction and tenacity. And in different sorts of bodies, there is great difference and variety in their nature and constitution.

Tenacity

Tenacity may be compared to the force of gravity, which is always the same; with this difference, that tenacity acts always contrary to the motion of the body, and when the body is at rest it is nothing. *Attrition* may be compared to the motion of a body striking always a given number of particles of matter in a given time, with any velocity; and therefore the resistance of such a body will be as the velocity.



FIG.



S E C T. XI.

*Methods of communicating, directing,
and regulating any motion in the
practice of Mechanics.*

P R O P. CX.

*To communicate motion from one body to another, or from
one place to another.*

150. 1. The easiest and simplest method of communicating motion from one thing *A* to another *B*, is by a rope or a lever *AB*, reaching between the two places, or things.
151. 2. Motion is communicated from one wheel or roller *DC* to another *AB*, by a perpetual or endless rope *ABCD*, going once or oftener about them: or if you will by a chain. That the rope slip not, make knots on it, and channels in the wheels, if necessary.
152. 3. Motion is communicated from one wheel *ABC*, to another *DEF*; by the teeth in the two wheels working together.
153. Or thus, where the axis of *A* having but one tooth; one revolution of it answers to the motion of only one tooth in *B*.

Sect. XI. PRODUCING MOTION.

197

FIG.

4. Motion is communicated from one place to another, by one or more beams or leavers, MB , BC , CE , EF , FH , &c. moveable about the centers A , B , C , D , E , F , G ; of which A , D , G , &c. are fixt. Here if the point M be moved, the point H will be moved; for MB , BC , CE , &c. all move one another to the last, FH .

154.

5. Motion may also be communicated from A to B , by a pinion at A , and a streight ruler with teeth, which bite one another,

155.

PROP. CXI.

By help of one uniform motion given; to produce another, either uniform or accelerated.

1. A uniform motion is produced in the wheel DEF ; by moving the wheel ABC uniformly, which carries it. Also a uniform motion is produced in wheels moving by cords, as AB , CD : for one being moved uniformly, moves the other also uniformly.

151.

152.

2. The wheel BF may be made to move uniformly about the center C , by the motion of the wheel BD . On the base BF with the generating circle BD , describe the epicycloidal tooth BE . Then the point B of the wheel AB , moving uniformly about the center A , and passing over the tooth BE ; will move the wheel BF uniformly, about C . Here the acting tooth AB ought to be made crooked as A , that it touch not the end E of the tooth BE , if it act on the concave side. Or else the plane of the wheel BD must be raised above the plane of BF , and a tooth made at B to bend down perpendicular to the plane of the wheel, as AG , to catch the tooth BE .

156.

O 3

3. The

FIG.

157.

3. The leaver AB may be made to move up and down with either a uniform or accelerated motion, after this manner. Let AE be a wheel whose axis is parallel to the leaver, and directly above it. Take any arch N_4 and divide it into any number of equal parts at 1, 2, 3, &c. through which from the center O , draw Oa , Ob , Oc , Od . And make $1a$, $2b$, $3c$, $4d$, &c. respectively equal to 1, 2, 3, 4 equal parts. And through the points N , a , b , &c. draw the curve $Nabcd$. Then the part NdF being made of solid wood, and fixt to the wheel; and the wheel being turned uniformly about, in the order $EN A$; the part NF will give a uniform motion to the leaver AB , about the center of motion C . And you may fix as many of these teeth to the wheel as you will.

Again, in the tooth AD , if $1a$, $2b$, $3c$, $4d$, &c. be taken equal, and $1a$, $2b$, $3c$, $4d$, &c. be taken equal to 1, 4, 9, 16, &c. equal parts; and the curve $Aabcd$ be drawn, and the tooth formed. Then the leaver will be moved with a uniformly accelerated motion.

The accelerated motion is proper for lifting a given weight, at the end B , as a hammer; or for working a pump, by a chain going over the end B .

158.

4. The leaver AB , may also be moved thus, by help of a machine GFD , moving uniformly along GD . Make HI , IF right lines; and make as many such teeth as you will; and these will give an uniform motion to the leaver; make the curves EFE all parabola's, equal and equidistant; whose vertices are at F ; and their bases meet at E . And these will make the leaver rise and fall with an accelerated motion. Such parabolic teeth as these may be placed on a wheel, whose axis is perpendicular to the horizon.

159.

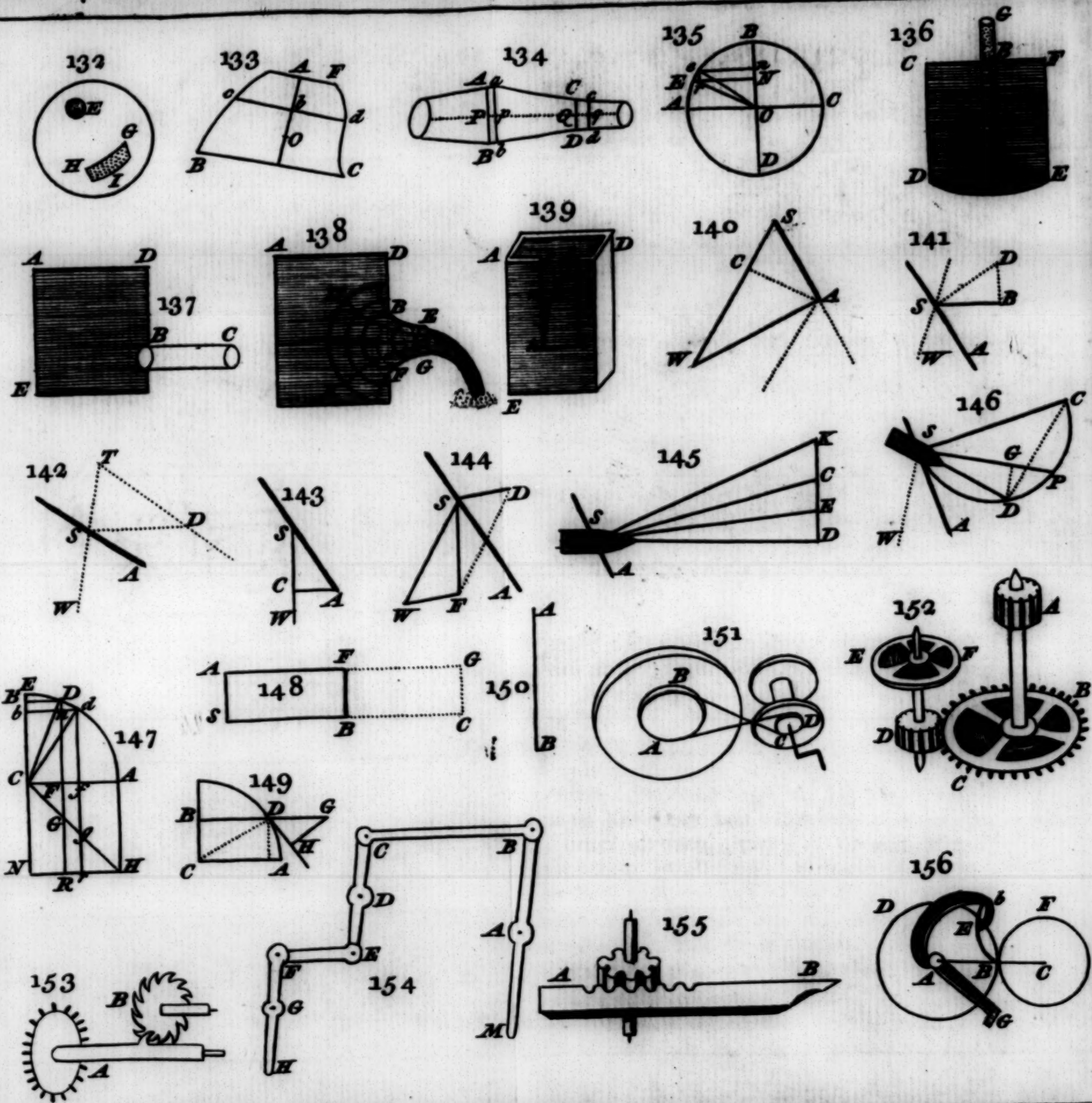
5. One wheel may move another with an accelerative motion thus. On the circle or wheel EF , take

d
n,
is
e
al
er
c,
s.
re
d
g
rt
3,
as

oe
al
ve
ne
d
en
ng

py
ng
ny
ni-
all
re
ill
o-
on
l.

cc-
F,
ke



SECT. XI. CHANGE OF DIRECTION.

199
FIG.
159.

take $Ea, ab, bc, \&c.$ equal to each other. And on the wheel BD take $B1$ a very small part; and $1\ 3, 3\ 5, 5\ 7, \&c.$ $3, 5, 7, \&c.$ times $B1$. Suppose the plane of the wheel EF to be extended as far as the marks $1, 3, 5, 7, \&c.$ then turn the wheel EF , till E fall on a ; then mark the point 1 on the plane of the wheel EF . Then turn EF till E comes to b ; and mark the point 3 on the plane of the wheel EF . Likewise let E come to $c, d, \&c.$ and mark the points $5, 7, \&c.$ on the plane of the wheel EF ; then $E\ 1\ 3\ 5\ 7\ r$ is the figure of the tooth of the wheel EF , which being uniformly moved, will move DB with an accelerative motion.

P R O P. CXII.

To change the direction of any motion.

1. The direction of motion may be changed, by 160.
the leaver of the first kind, for the two ends have opposite motions. Likewise a bended leaver will change the direction to any other direction.

2. The direction of motion may be changed by the 161.
help of pulleys, with a rope going over them. Thus the direction AB is changed successively into the direction BC, CD, DE, EF, FG .

3. The direction may be changed by wheels whose 162.
axels are perpendicular to one another. Thus the direction AB is changed into the direction EF ; by the wheel C working in the crownwheel D .

4. The direction may be changed, by making the 163.
lantern B inclined in any given angle, to be moved by the coggs of the wheel A . Here the rungs at F where they work must be parrallel to the plane of the wheel A , or perpendicular to the coggs. The same thing 164.
may be done by wheels with teeth, as C, D .

P R O P.

FIG.

165.

PROP. CXIII.

To regulate any motion, or to make it uniform.

1. Any motion is made uniform, by help of a pendulum AB , suspended at A and vibrating. As the pendulum vibrates, it causes CDE to vibrate also, about the axis DE . The weight I carries the wheel R , and R moves LF . Now whilst the pendulum vibrates towards M , a tooth of the wheel GF goes off the pallat I , and another catches the pallat H ; and when the pendulum returns towards N , it draws the pallat H off the tooth, and another catches the pallat I ; and so on alternately. So that at every vibration of the pendulum, a tooth goes off one or other of the pallats.

166.

2. A uniform motion is effected by the pendulum CP , vibrating in the arch NM about the center of motion C . As the pendulum vibrates it causes the piece ADE to vibrate along with it about the axis of motion DE . By this motion the leaf a catches hold of a tooth of the horizontal wheel GF , in its going; and the leaf b of another tooth, in returning. A wheel with a weight is applied to the pinion L , to keep the pendulum going.

167.

3. A pendulum may also be applied thus for the same purpose. FG is a thick wheel, or rather a double wheel, whose axis is parallel to the horizon. nP a pendulum vibrating upon the axis DE , which is parallel to the planes of the wheel $F G$. and two wings perpendicular to DE , and to nP . 1, 1, 1 pins in the rim G , and 2, 2, 2 pins in the rim F . These pins are in the planes of the wheel; but not perp. to the circumference, but inclined in an angle of about 45 degrees; and the pins in one end are against the spaces in the other. ab is parallel to the axis of the wheel FG , but neither in the same horizontal or perpendicular plane; but almost the radius of the wheel below, and something more to one side.

Whilst

Whilst the pendulum *P* vibrates in the arch *MN*, about the axis *DE*, the wing *a* catches hold of a tooth in the end *F*; and when it returns the wing *b* catches hold of a tooth in the end *G*. Thus the pins acting alternately against the wings *a*, *b*, keep the pendulum going by help of the weight *W*. FIG. 167.

4. A steady motion is continued by applying the heavy wheel *ABC*, to the machine: or the cross bar *DE* loaded with two equal weights at *D* and *E*. Or a cylinder of some heavy matter may be applied: being made to revolve about its axis. By these the force of the power, which would be lost, is kept in the wheel, and is equally distributed in all parts of the revolution. Such a wheel is of great use in such machines as act with unequal force at different times or in different parts of a revolution. For by its weight it constantly goes on at the same rate, and makes the motion uniform and every where equal. By reason of its weight a little variation of force will not sensibly alter its motion: And its friction, and the resistance of the air will hinder it from accelerating. If the machine slackens its motion, it will help it forward; if it tends to move too fast, it will keep it back. 168.
169.

Every such regulating wheel ought to be fixt upon that axis, where the motion is swiftest. And ought to be the heavier, the slower it is designed to move; and the lighter, the swifter the motion is. And in all cases the center of motion must be in the center of gravity of the wheel. And the axis may be placed parallel to the horizon as well as perpendicular to it.

If the machine be large, and the axis of the heavy wheel be perp. to the horizon; the heavy wheel may be made to roll on the ground round that axis; by putting the wheel upon another axis fixt in the former at right angles to it; and thus the weight is taken off the first axis. And two such wheels may be applied on opposite sides.

5. Any swift motion may be moderated by a fly *AB*, moveable about the axis *CD*. This is made of thin 170.

T Y I N G K N O T S.

FIG. thin metal; at *s* is a spring to keep the axis and fly pretty stiff together. This bridles the rapidity of the motion of the machine to which it is applied, by reason of its great resistance in the air; and therefore it hinders the motion from accelerating beyond a certain degree. This sort of fly is used in clocks, and is useful in any motion that requires to stop, or move a contrary way.

None of these regulating wheels or flyes add any new power to the machine; but rather retard the motion by their friction and resistance.

P R O P. CXIV.

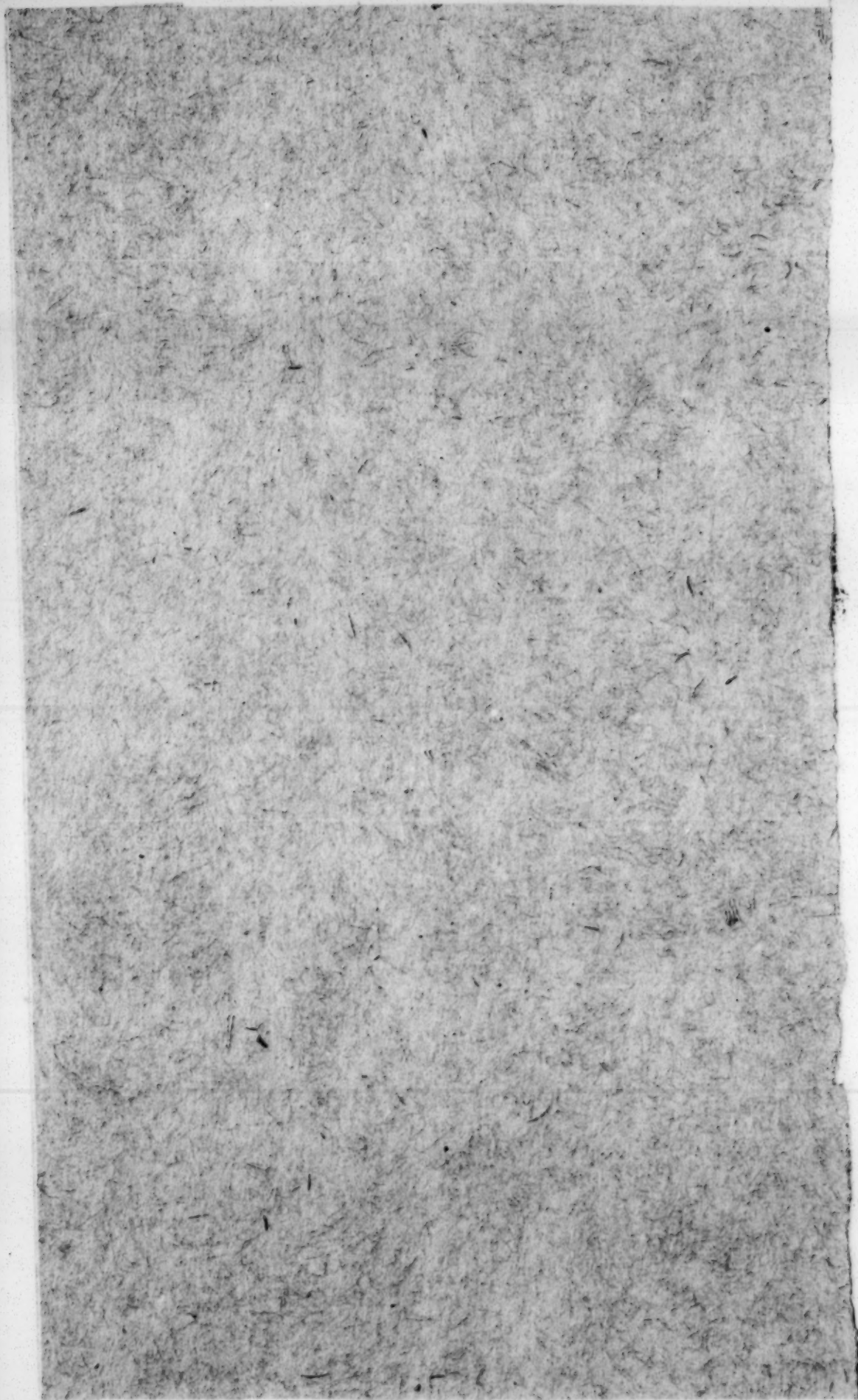
To describe several sorts of knots.

As ropes are made use of in several sorts of machines, and especially aboard of ships, it is proper for a mechanic to know how to tye them. Therefore I shall here describe several sorts of them. Not so much to teach how to tye them, as to shew the form they appear in, when they are tied. For the method of tying them is best learned from those that can tye them already.

171. 1. *Atumb knot*. This is the simplest of all; and is used to tye at the end of a rope, to hinder its opening out. Also it is used by tailors at the end of their thread.
172. 2. *A loop knot*, this is used to join pieces of ropes together.
173. 3. *A draw knot*, is the same as the last; only one (or both) of the ends returns the same way back, as *abcde*. By pulling at *a* the part *bcd* comes thro', and the knot is loosed.
174. 4. *A ring knot*. This serves also to join pieces of rope together.
175. 5. *Another knot* for tying ropes together. This is made use of when any rope is often to be loosed.
176. 6. *A running knot* to draw any thing close. By pulling at the end *a*, the rope is drawn thro' the loop *b*, and the part *cd* is drawn close about a beam, &c.

7. Another

e
s
g
e
r



Sect. XI. TYING KNOTS.

203

7. Another *knot*, to tye any thing to a post; here the end may be put through as oft as you will.

FIG.

177.

8. A *very small knot*. There is a thumb knot made at the end of each piece; and the end of the other is to go thro' it. Thus the rope *ac* runs thro' the loop *d*, and *bd*, thro' *c*. And then drawn close by pulling at *a* and *b*. If the ends *e*, *f*, be drawn, the knot will be loosed again.

178.

9. A *fisher's knot*, or *water knot*. This is the same as the 4th. only the ends are to be put twice thro' the ring, which in that was but once; and then drawn close.

179.

10. A *masking knot* for nets; and is to be drawn close.

180.

11. A *barber's knot*, or a knot for cauls of wigs. This must be drawn close.

181.

12. A *bowline knot*. When this is drawn close it makes a loop that will not slip, as fig *R*. This serves to hitch over any thing.

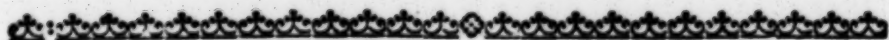
194.

13. A *wale knot* is made with three strands of a rope so that it cannot slip. When the rope is put through a hole, this knot keeps it from slipping through, it is represented at *S* fig. 193. If the three strands are wrought round once or twice more after the same manner; it is called crowning. By this means the knot is made bigger and stronger. A thumb knot art. 1. may be applied to the same use as this.

193.

SECT.

FIG.



S E C T. XII.

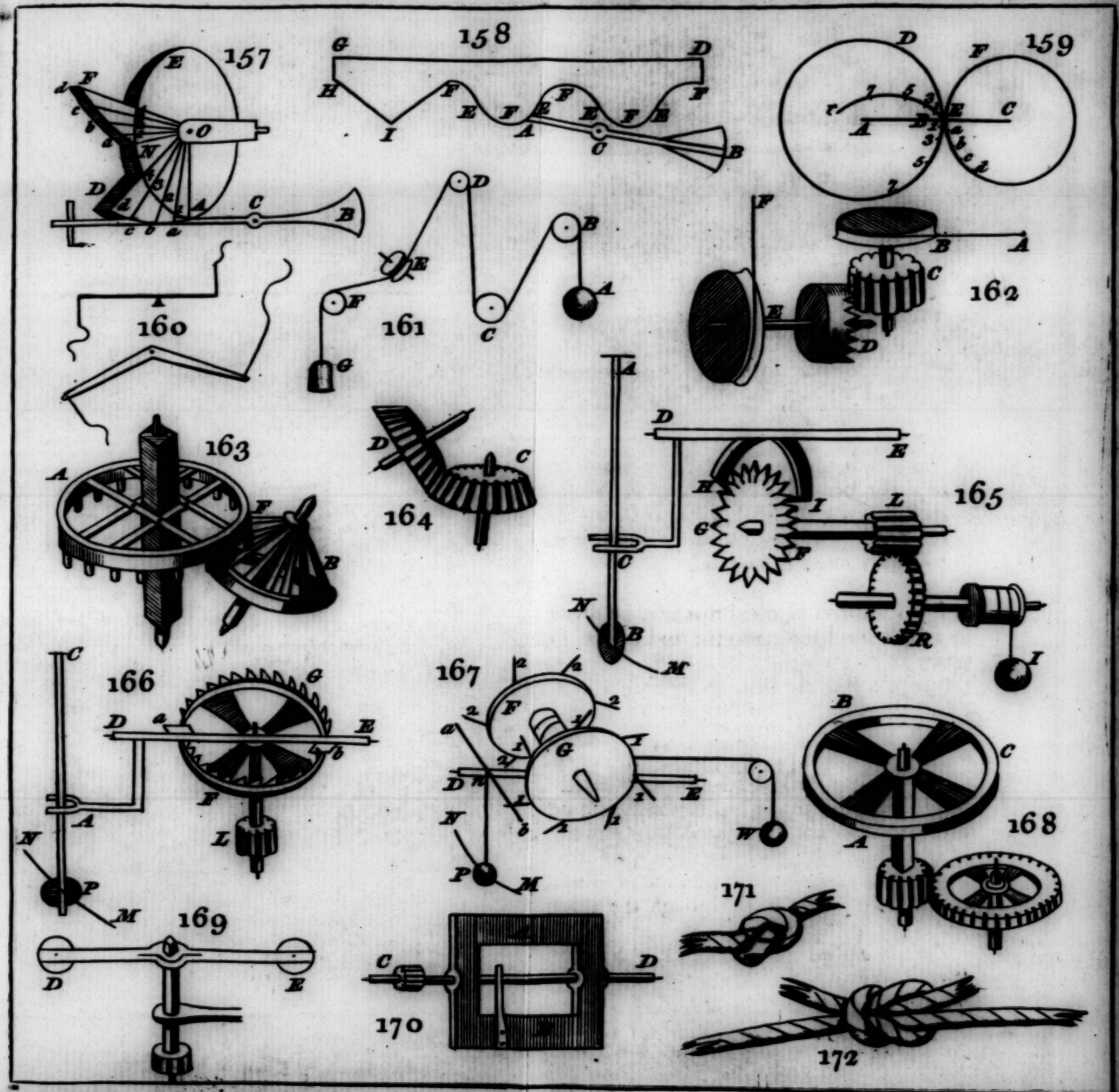
The powers and properties of compound engines ; of forces acting within the machine ; of friction.

P R O P. CXV.

In any compounded machine, if the power and weight keep the machine and its parts in equilibrio. Then the power is to the weight, in the compound ratio of the power to the weight in every simple machine, of which the whole is composed.

For let the compound machine be divided into all its simple mechanic powers ; and in the first let the power be to the weight as A to B . Then considering the weight B in the first, as the power in the second, to which it is equal (by Ax. 3.); let that power in the second machine, be to the weight as B to C . Then *ex equo*, the first power A is to the second weight at C ; in the compound ratio of A to B and B to C . In like manner if the weight in the second be taken for the power in the third, and this power be to the weight as C to D ; then the first power A is to the last weight D , in the compound ratio of A to B , B to C , and C to D . And so on through the whole.

Cor. In any machine composed of wheels ; the power is to the weight ; in the compound ratio of the diameter of the axle where the weight is applied, to the diameter of that



that where the power is applied ; and the number of teeth in the pinion of each axis, beginning at the power, to the number of teeth in each wheel they work in, till you come at the weight. FIG.

Or instead of the teeth you may take their diameters.

P R O P. CXVII

If the power and weight be in equilibrio on any machine ; if they be put in motion, the velocity of the weight will be to that of the power ; as the power is to the weight.

For since they are in equilibrio ; one of them cannot of itself move the other ; therefore if they be put into motion, the momentum or quantity of motion of the weight, will be equal to that of the power : and therefore their velocities will be reciprocally as their quantities.

Cor. 1. Hence it follows, that if any weight is moved by help of a machine ; what is gained in power is lost in time.

For in whatever proportion the power is less than the weight ; in the same proportion will the weight be slower than the power.

Cor. 2. Hence the motion of the weight is not at all increased by any engine, or mechanical instrument ; only the velocity of the weight is so much diminished thereby ; that the quantity of motion of the weight may not exceed the quantity of motion of the power. And therefore it is a vain fancy for any one to think that he can move a great weight with a little power, and with the same velocity as with a greater power.

For the advantage gained by the power is lost by
the

FIG. the velocity. If any power is able to raise a pound with a given velocity; it is impossible by the help of any machine whatever that the same power can raise two pounds with the same velocity. Yet it may, by help of a machine, be made to raise two pounds with half that velocity; or even 1000 pounds with the thousandth part of the velocity. But still there is no greater quantity of motion produced when 1000 pounds weight is moved, than when 1 pound: The 1000 pounds being proportionally slower. The power and use of machines consists only in this, that by their means the velocity of the weight may be diminished at pleasure, so that a given weight may be moved with a given power; or that with a given force any given resistance may be overcome. Mechanic instruments being only the means whereby one body communicates motion to another: And not designed to produce a motion that had no existence before.

Cor. 3. Hence also it is plain, that a given power or quantity of force, applied to move a heavy body by help of a machine, can produce no greater quantity of motion in that body, than if that force was immediately applied to the body itself. Nor not quite so much, by reason of the friction and resistance of the engine. And if the power be given, you may choose whether you will move a greater weight with a less velocity, or a less weight with a greater velocity. But to do both is utterly repugnant to the eternal laws of nature.

PROP. CXVII.

182. *If any machine CD is to be moved by the help of leavers, wheels, &c. And if the power that moves it, acts entirely within the machine, and exerts its force against some external object B. Then the force applied within, to move the machine, will be just the same as if the machine was at rest, and the object B was to be moved*

Sect. XII. FRICTION of ENGINES.

207

moved. Supposing B to be as easily moved as the machine.

FIG.
182.

For suppose first, the leaver AFB to be fixt, and to make a part of the machine; and let the external force acting at B , which is capable to move the machine, be 1. Now suppose the leaver AFB , moveable about F ; and a force applied at A , so great, as to act at B with the force 1. Then the action and reaction at B being the same as before; it is plain the machine will be moved as before. But the force now acting at A is $\frac{BF}{AF} \times 1$; just the same as if the point F was fixed, and B was to be moved. And if more leavers, or any number of wheels be added, the thing will still be the same.

Otherwise.

Let the absolute force to move the machine be 1, and the force acting at A be f ; and let us first consider it as acting out of the machine. Then B being fixt is the fulcrum; therefore the force acting at F is $\frac{AB}{FB} \times f$. Now if the acting force be considered in the machine, it will not be urged forward with all this force, for the reaction will be equal to f , the power at A . Therefore the absolute force the machine is moved with, is $\frac{AB}{FB} \times f - f$ or $\frac{AB - FB}{FB} \times f$ that is $\frac{AF}{FB} \times f$, but this is = 1, therefore $f = \frac{FB}{AF} \times 1$.

Cor. 1. Hence if the absolute external force, to move any body or machine, be given; and the machine is to be moved by an internal power: That power may be found, by supposing the machine at rest, and the external

FIG. *nal object B was to be removed, and to require the same absolute force to move it.*

For it is the same thing, as to the power, whether the machine, or the external object be moved, whilst the other is at rest.

Cor. 2. If the power acting within the machine, be not communicated to some external object, it will have no force at all to move the machine. And any force that both begins and ends within it, does nothing at all to move it.

For the power acting only against some part of the machine, will be destroyed by the contrary and equal reaction. And the body being acted on by those equal and contrary forces will not be moved at all. Thus if a man sitting in the head of a boat, pull the stern towards him, by a rope; the boat will not be moved at all out of its place, by that force.

P R O P. CXVIII.

To determine the friction, and other irregularities in mechanical engines.

The propositions hitherto laid down, suppose all bodies perfectly smooth, that they slide over one another without any friction, and move freely without any resistance. But since there is no such thing as perfect smoothness in bodies; therefore in rubbing against one another they meet with more or less friction according to their roughness; and in moving in any medium, will be resisted according to the density of the medium. Even ropes going over pulleys cannot be bended without some force.

Among machines, some have a great deal more friction than others, and some very little. Thus a pendulum

SECT. XII. FRICTION OF ENGINES.

209

FIG.

pendulum has little or no friction, but what arises from the resistance of the air. But a carriage has a great deal of friction. For upon plain ground a loaded cart requires the strength of several horses to draw it along: and all or most of this force is owing to its friction. All compounded machines have a great deal of friction, and so much the more as they consist of more parts that rub against one another. And there is great variety in several sorts of bodies, as to the quantity of friction they have, and even in the same bodies under different circumstances: Upon which account it will be impossible to give any standing rules, by which its quantity can be exactly determined. All we can do is to lay down such particular rules as have been deduced from experiments made upon particular bodies; which rules will require some variation under different circumstances; according to the judgment and experience of the artist.

1. Wood and all metals when oyled or greased have nearly the same friction. And the smoother they are, the less friction they have. Yet metals may be so far polished as to increase friction by the cohesion of their parts.

Wood slides easier upon the ground in wet weather than in dry; and easier than iron in dry weather. But iron slides easier than wood in wet weather. Lead makes a great deal of resistance. Iron or steel running in brass, makes the least friction of any. In wood acting against wood, grease makes the motion twice as easy, or rather $\frac{2}{3}$ easier. Wheel naves greased or tarred, go four times easier than when wet.

Metals oyled makes the friction less than when polished, and twice as little as when unpolished.

In general, the softer or rougher the bodies, the greater is their friction.

2. As to particular cases: A cubic piece of soft wood of eight pound weight, moving upon a smooth plane of soft wood, at the rate of three feet per second;

P

FRICTION OF ENGINES.

FIG. cond; its friction is about $\frac{1}{3}$ the weight of it. But if it be rough, the friction is little less than half the weight.

Upon the same supposition, other soft wood upon soft wood very smooth; the friction is about $\frac{1}{4}$ the weight.

Soft wood upon hard or hard upon soft, $\frac{1}{5}$ or $\frac{1}{6}$ the weight.

Hard wood upon hard wood, $\frac{1}{7}$ or $\frac{1}{8}$ the weight.

Polished steel moving on steel or pewter, $\frac{1}{4}$ the weight: moving on copper or lead, $\frac{1}{5}$ the weight: on brass $\frac{1}{6}$ the weight. Metals of the same sort have more friction, than different sorts.

The friction, *ceteris paribus*, increases with the weight, almost in the same proportion. The friction is also greater with a greater velocity, but not in proportion to it, except in very few cases. A greater surface also causes something more friction, with the same weight and velocity. Yet friction may sometimes be increased, by having too little surface to move on: as upon clay, &c. where the body sinks.

3. The friction arising from the bending of ropes about machines, differs according to their stiffness, the temper of the weather, degree of flexibility, &c. but *ceteris paribus*, the force or difficulty of bending a rope is as the square of the diameter of the rope, and its tension, directly; and the diameter of the cylinder or pulley, it goes about reciprocally.

A rope of 1 inch diameter, whose tension, or weight drawing it, is 5 lb. going over a pulley 3 inches diameter; requires a force of 1 lb. to bend it.

4. The resistance of a plane moving through a fluid, is as the square of the velocity: And (putting v = velocity in feet, in a second,) it is equal to the weight of a column of the fluid, whose base is the plane, and height $\frac{vv}{64}$. And in a globe it is but half so much.

5. The

5. The friction of a fluid running through a tube is as the velocity and diameter of the tube.

But the friction is greater in respect to the quantity of the fluid, in small tubes, than in large ones; and that reciprocally as their diameters. But the absolute quantity of the friction in tubes, is but very small, except the velocity be very great, and the tube very long.

But if a pipe be divided into several lesser ones, whose number is n ; the resistance arising from the friction will be increased as $\sqrt{n}$. For the area of the section of any one pipe, will be $\frac{1}{n}$, and the friction being as the circumference will be as $\frac{1}{\sqrt{n}}$, and therefore the friction in all of them, will be $\frac{n}{\sqrt{n}}$, or as $\sqrt{n}$.

6. As to the mechanic powers. The single lever makes no resistance by friction. But if by the motion of the lever in lifting, the fulcrum or place of support be changed further from the weight; the power will be decreased thereby.

7. In any wheel of any machine, running upon an axis; the friction on the axis is as the weight upon it, the diameter of the axis, and the angular velocity. This sort of friction is but small.

8. In the pulley, if p , q , be two weights, and q the greater; and if $W = \frac{4pq}{p+q}$, then W is the weight upon the axis of the single pulley. And it is not increased by the acceleration of the weight q , but remains always the same.

The friction of the pullies is very considerable,
P 2 when

FIG. when the sheaves rub against the blocks; and by the wearing of the holes and axels.

The friction on the axis of the pulley is as the weight W , its angular velocity, the diameter of the axis directly, and the diameter of the pulley inversely. A power of 100 lb with the addition of 50 lb. will but draw up 500 lb. with a tackle of 5.

And 15 lb. over a single pulley will draw up only 14 lb.

9. In the screw, there is a great deal of friction. Those with sharp threads have more friction than those with square threads. And endless screws have more than either. Screws with a square thread raise a weight with more ease than those with a sharp thread.

In the common screw the friction is so great that it will sustain the weight in any position given, when the power is taken off. And therefore the friction is at least equal to the power. From whence it will follow, that in the screw.

The power must be to the weight or resistance; at least as twice the perp. height of a thread, to the circumference described by one revolution of the power; if it be able to raise the weight, or only sustain it. This friction of the screw is of great use, as it serves to keep the weight in any given position.

10. In the wedge, the friction is at least equal to the power, as it retains any position it is driven into. Therefore in the wedge,

The power, must be to the weight; at least as twice the base, to the height; to overcome any resistance.

11. To find the friction of any engine, begin at the power, and consider the velocity and the weight at the first rubbing part; and estimate its quantity of friction, by some of the foregoing articles. Then

Sect. XII. FRICTION OF ENGINES.

2'3

proceed to the next rubbing part, and do the same for it. And so on through the whole. FIG.

And note something more is to be allowed for increase of friction, by every new addition to the power.

Cor. Hence will appear the difficulty or rather impossibility of a perpetual motion; or such a motion as is to continue the same for ever, or at least as long as the material will last, that compose the moving machine.

For such a motion as this ought continually to return undiminished, notwithstanding any resistance it meets with, which is impossible. For although any body once put into motion, and moving freely without any resistance, or any external retarding force acting upon it, would for ever retain that motion. Yet in fact we are certain, that no body or machine can move at all, without some degree of friction and resistance. And therefore it must follow, that from the resistance of the medium, and the friction of the parts of the machine upon one another, its motion will gradually decay, till at last all the motion is destroyed, and the machine is at rest. Nor can this be otherwise. except some new active force, equal to all its resistance, adds a new motion to it. But that cannot be from the body or machine itself; for then the body could move itself, or be the cause of its own motion, which is absurd.

P R O P. CXIX.

To contrive a proper machine that shall move a given weight with a given power; or with a given quantity of force, shall overcome any other given resistance.

If the given power is not able to overcome the given resistance when directly applied, that is, when

P 3

the

FIG. the power applied is less than the weight or resistance given; then the thing is to be performed by the help of a machine made with leavers, wheels, pulleys, screws, &c. so adjusted that when the weight and power are put in motion on the machine; the velocity of the power may be at least so much greater than that of the weight, as the weight and friction of the machine, taken together; is greater than the power. For on this principle depends the mechanism or contrivance of mechanical engines used to draw or raise heavy bodies, or overcome any other force. The whole design of these, being to give such a velocity to the power in respect of the weight; as that the momentum of the power may exceed the momentum of the weight. For if machines are so contrived, that the velocities of the agent and resistant, are reciprocally as their forces; the agent will just sustain the resistant: But with a greater degree of velocity will overcome it. So that if the excess of velocity in the power is so great as to overcome all that resistance which commonly arises from the friction or attrition of contiguous bodies, as they slide by one another, or from the cohesion of bodies that are to be separated, or from the weights of bodies to be raised. The excess of the force remaining, after all these resistances are overcome; will produce an acceleration of motion proportional thereto, as well in the parts of the machine as in the resisting body. Now how a machine may be contrived to perform this to the best advantage, will appear from the following rules.

1. Having assigned the proportion of your power and the weight to be raised: the next thing is to consider how to combine leavers, wheels, pulleys, &c. so that working together, they may be able to give a velocity to the power which shall be to that of the weight, something greater than in the proportion of the weight to the power. This done you must estimate

mate your quantity of friction, by the last Prop. FIG. and if the velocity of the power be to that of the weight still in a greater proportion, than the weight and friction taken together is to the power; then your machine will be able to raise the weight. And note, this proportion must be so much greater, as you would have your engine work faster.

2. But the proportion of the velocity of the power and weight must not be made too great neither. For it is a fault to give a machine too much power, as well as too little. For if the power can raise the weight and overcome the resistance, and the engine perform its proper effect in a convenient time, and works well; it is sufficient for the end proposed. And it is in vain to make more additions to the engine to increase the power any further; for that would not only be a needless expence, but the engine would loose time in working.

3. As to the power applied to work the engine, it may be either a living power as men, horses, &c. or an artificial power as a spring, &c. or a natural power as wind, water, fire, weights, &c.

When the quantity of the power is known; it matters not as to the effect what kind of power it is. For the same quantity of any sort will produce the same effect. And different sorts of powers, may be applied in an equal quantity, a great variety of ways.

The most easy power applied to a machine is weight, if it be capable of effecting the thing designed. If not, then wind, water, &c. if that can conveniently be had. and without much expence.

A spring is also a convenient moving power for several machines. But it never acts equally as a weight does. But is stronger when much bent, than when but a little bent, and that in proportion to the degree of bending, or the distance it is forced to. But springs grow weaker by often bending, or remaining

FIG. long bent; yet they recover part strength by lying unbent.
44.

The natural powers, wind and water may be applied with vast advantage to the working of great engines, when managed with skill and judgment. The due application of these has much abridged the labours of men. For there is scarce any labour to be performed, but an ingenious artificer can tell how to apply these powers to execute his design, and answer his purpose. For any constant motion being given, it may by a due application, be made to produce any other motions we desire. Therefore these powers are the most easy and useful, and of the greatest benefit to mankind. Besides they cost nothing, nor require any repetition or renewing, like a weight or a spring, which require to be wound up. When these cannot be had, or cannot serve our end; we have recourse to some living power, as men, horses, &c.

4. Men may apply their strength several ways, in working a machine. A man of ordinary strength, turning a roller by the handle, can act for a whole day, against a resistance equal to 30 lb. weight. And if he works ten hours in a day, he will raise a weight of 30 lb. $3\frac{1}{2}$ feet in a second; or if the weight be greater, he will raise it so much less in proportion.

But a man may act, for a small time, against a resistance of 50 lb. or more.

If two men work at a windless or roller, they can more easily draw up 70 lb. than one man can 30 lb. provided the elbow of one of the handles be at right angles to that of the other. And with a fly or heavy wheel applied to it, a man may do $\frac{1}{3}$ part more work; and for a little while act with a force, or overcome a continual resistance, of 80 lb and work a whole day when the resistance is but 40 lb.

Men used to carrying, such as porters, will carry, some 150 lb. others 200 or 250 lb. according to their strength.

A man can draw but about 70 or 80 lb. horizontally; for he can but apply about half his weight.

If the weight of a man be 140 lb. he can act with no greater a force in thrusting horizontally, at the height of his shoulders, than 27 lb.

As to horses. A horse is generally speaking as strong as five men. A horse will carry 240 or 270 lb.

A horse draws to greatest advantage, when the line of direction is a little elevated above the horizon, and the power acts against his breast. And can draw 200 lb. for 8 hours in a day at $2\frac{1}{2}$ miles an hour. If he draw 240 lb. he can work but 6 hours, and not go quite so fast. And in both cases, if he carries some weight, he will draw better than if he carried none. And this is the weight a horse is supposed to be able to draw over a pulley out of a well. In a cart, a horse may draw 1000 lb. The most force a horse can exert is when he draws, something above a horizontal position.

The worst way of applying the strength of a horse, is to make him carry or draw up hill. And three men in a steep hill, carrying each 100 lb. will climb up faster than a horse with 300 lb.

A round walk for a horse to draw in (at a mill &c.) should not be less than forty feet diameter.

5. Every machine ought to be made of as few parts, and those as simple as possible, to answer its purpose; not only because the expence of making and repairing will be less; but it will also be less liable to any disorder. And it is needless to do a thing with many, which may be done with fewer parts.

6. If a weight is to be raised but a very little way, the lever is the most simple, easy, and ready machine. Or if the weight be very great, the common screw is most proper. But if the weight is to be raised a great way, the wheel and axle is a proper power, and blocks and pulleys are easier still; and the

the same may be done by help of the perpetual screw.

Great wheels to be wrought by men or cattle, are of most use and convenience, when their axels are perpendicular to the horizon; but if by water, &c. then it is best to have their axels horizontal.

7. As to the combination of simple machines together, to make a compound one. Though the lever when simple cannot raise a weight to any great height; and in this case is of little service; yet it is of great use when compounded with others. Thus the spokes of a great wheel are all levers perpetually acting. And a beam fixt to the axis to draw the wheel about by men or horses, is a lever. The lever also may be combined with the screw, but not conveniently with pulleys or with the wedge. The wheel and axel is combined with great advantage with pulleys. The screw is not well combined with pulleys; but the perpetual screw combined with the wheel, is very serviceable. The wedge cannot be combined with any other mechanical power; and it only performs its effect by percussion; but this force of percussion may be increased by engines.

Pulleys may be combined with pulleys, and wheels with wheels. Therefore if any single wheel would be too large, and take up too much room; it may be divided into two or three more wheels and trundles, or wheels and pinions, as in clockwork; so as to have the same power, and perform the same effect.

In wheels with teeth, the number of teeth which play together in two wheels ought to be prime to each other, that the same teeth may not meet at every revolution; for when different teeth meet, they by degrees wear themselves into a proper figure. Therefore, they should be contrived that the same teeth meet as seldom as possible.

8. The

8. The strength of every part of the machine ought to be made proportional to the stress it is to bear. And therefore let every lever be made so much stronger, as its length, and the weight it is to support, is greater. And let its strength diminish proportionally from the fulcrum, or point where the greatest stress is, to each end. The axels of wheels and pullies must be so much stronger as they are to bear greater weight. The teeth of wheels, and the wheels themselves, which act with greater force must be proportionally stronger. And in any combination of wheels and axels, make their strength diminish gradually from the weight to the power, so that the strength of every part be reciprocally as the velocity it has. The strength of ropes must be according to their tension, and that is as the squares of their diameters. And in general whatever parts a machine is composed of, the strength of every particular part of it must be adjusted to the stress upon it, according to Sect. VIII. therefore in square beams the cubes of the diameters must be made proportional to the stress they bear. And let no part be stronger or bigger than is necessary for the stress upon it: Not only for the ease and well going of the machine, but for diminishing the friction. For all superfluous matter in any part of it, is nothing but a dead weight upon the machine, and serves for nothing but to clog its motion. And he is by no means a perfect mechanic, that does not only adjust the strength to the stress; but also contrive all the parts to last equally well, that the whole machine may fail together.

9. To have the friction as little as possible, the machine ought to be made of the fewest and simplest parts. The diameters of the wheels and pullies ought to be large, and the diameters of the arbors or spindles they run on, as small as can be consistent with their strength. All ropes and cords must be as pliable as possible, and for that end are rubbed with tarr

FIG. or greafe, the teeth of wheels must be made to fit and fill up the opens; and cut into the form of epicycloids. All the axels, where the motion is, and all teeth where they work, and all parts that in working rub upon one another, must be made smooth: And when the machine goes, must be oiled or greased. If a joint is to go pretty stiff and steady, rub a little greafe upon it.

183. The axis *a* of a wheel, may have its friction diminished, by causing it to run on two rollers *B*, *C*, turning round with it, upon two centers.

184. Likewise instead of the teeth of wheels, one may place little wheels as *A*, *B*, running upon an axis in its center. And this will take away almost all the friction of the teeth. And in lanterns or trundles, the rounds may be made to turn about, instead of being fixt.

In all machines with wheels, the axels or spindles ought not to shake, which they will do, if they be too short. And their ends ought just to fill their holes.

10. When any motion is to be long continued; contrive the power to move or act always one way, if it can be done. For this is better and easier performed than when the motion is interrupted, and the power is forced to move first one way and then another. Because every new change of motion requires a new additional force to effect it. Besides a body in motion cannot suddenly receive a contrary motion, without great violence. And the moving any part of the machine contrary ways by turns, with sudden jerks, tends only to shake the machine to pieces.

11. In a machine that moves always one way, endeavour to have the motion uniform. Some methods of doing this may be seen in Prop. CXIII. and if one uniform motion be required to produce a motion either uniform or accelerated, some light may be had from

from Prop. CXI. likewise how to communicate motion consult Prop. CX. and to change the direction see Prop. CXII.

FIG.

12. But when the nature of the thing requires that a motion is to be suddenly communicated to a body, or suddenly stopped: To prevent any damage or violence to the engine, by a sudden jolt; let the force act against some spring; or beam of wood, which may supply the place of a spring.

13. In regard to the size of the machine; let it be made as large as it can conveniently. The greater the machine the exacter it will work, and perform all its motions the better. For there will always be some errors in the making, as well as in the materials; and consequently in the working of the machine. The resistance of the medium in some machines has a sensible effect. But all these mechanical errors bear a less proportion to the motion of the machine in great machines than in little ones; being nearly reciprocally as their diameters; supposing they are made of the same matter, and with the same accuracy, and are equally well finished. Therefore in a small machine they are more sensible; but in a great one almost vanish. Therefore great machines, will answer better than smaller, in all respects, except in strength. For the greater the machine the weaker it is, and less able to resist any violence.

14. For engines that go by water, it is necessary to measure the velocity and force of the water. To get the velocity, drop in pieces of sticks, &c. and observe how far they are carried in a second, or any given time.

But if it flow through a hole in a reservoir or standing receptacle of water. The velocity will be found from the depth of the hole below the surface; by Cor. 2. Prop. 97. and its force by Cor. 1. Prop. 107.

Thus

FIG. Thus let $s = 16\frac{1}{2}$ feet. v = velocity of the fluid per second. B = the area of the hole. H = height of the water; all in feet. Then the velocity $v = \sqrt{2sH}$, and its force = the weight of the quantity $\frac{vv}{2s} B$ or

HB of water, or = $\frac{62\frac{1}{2}}{112} HB$ hundred weight: be-

cause a cubic foot is = $62\frac{1}{2}$ lb. avoird. Also a hog-head is about $8\frac{1}{2}$ feet, or 531 lb. and a ton is four hogheads.

When you have but a small quantity of water, you must contrive it to fall as high as you can, to have the greater velocity, and consequently more force upon the engine.

15. If water is to be conveyed through pipes to a great distance, and the descent be but small; so much larger pipes must be used, because the water will come slow.

Pipes of conduct coming directly from an engine, should be made of iron with flanches at the ends to screw them together, with lead between; or else of wood; for lead pipes will bulge out at every stroke of the engine and burst. But pipes next a jet must be lead. Pipes should not turn off at an angle, but gradually in a curve: Pipes of elm will last twenty or thirty years in the ground. But they must be laid so deep, that the frost may not reach them; or else the water must be let out; otherwise the frost will split them.

The thickness of any pipe must be as the diameter of the bore, and also as the depth from the spring. For a lead pipe of six inches bore, and sixty or seventy feet high, the thickness must be half an inch. And in wooden pipes two inches.

Water should not be driven through pipes faster than four feet per second; by reason of the friction of the tubes. Nor should it be much wire drawn, that
is

is, squeezed through smaller pipes; for that creates a resistance, as the water-way is less in narrow pipes. FIG.

When pipes are windbound, that is when air is lodged in them that the water can hardly pass; it must be discharged thus. Going from the spring till you come to the first rising of the ground; dig it open till the pipe be laid bare, then with a nail driven into it, at the highest part, or rather a little beyond, make a hole in the top. And all the air will blow out at the hole, and when the water comes, batter up the hole again. Do the same at every eminence, and all the air will be discharged. If the water run fast through the pipes, the air will be beyond the eminence; but stopping the water; the air will ascend to the highest part. If air be driven in at first along with the water; the nail hole must be left open; or a cock placed there to open occasionally. Sometimes a small leaden pipe is placed over the other, communicating with it in several places, in which is a cock at top to open upon occasion.

16. When any work is to be performed by a water-wheel moved by the water running under it and striking the paddles or laddle boards. The channel it moves in ought to be something wider than the hole of the adjutage, and so close to the floats on every side, as to let little or no water pass; and when past the wheel, to open a little that the water may spread. It is of no advantage to have a great number of floats or paddles, for these past the perpendicular are resisted by the back water, and those before it are struck obliquely. The greatest effect that such a wheel can perform, in communicating any motion, is when the paddles of the wheel move with $\frac{1}{2}$ the velocity of the water; in which case, the force upon the paddles is $\frac{1}{2}$ only; supposing the the absolute force of the water against the paddles, when the wheel stands still, to be 1. So that the utmost motion which the wheel can generate, is but $\frac{1}{2}$ of that which the force

FIG. force of the water against the paddles at rest, would produce. This is when the wheel is at the best; but oftentimes far less is done.

Machines to raise water, though well made, seldom lose less than $\frac{1}{3}$ the computed quantity of water to be raised. The best contrived engine is scarce $\frac{1}{3}$ part better than the worst contrived engine, when they are equally well executed.

A man with the best water engine cannot raise above one hoghead of water in a minute, 10 feet high, to work all day.



S E C T. XIII.

The description of compound Machines or Engines, and the method of computing their powers or forces; with some account of the advantages or disadvantages of their construction.

P R O P. CXX.

To describe several sorts of Engines, and to compute their forces or effects.

There are two things required to make a good Mechanic or Engineer. The first is a good invention for contriving all the parts of a machine, to perform its motions and effects in the most simple and easy manner. The next is, to be able to compute the power or force of it; to know whether it can really perform the effect expected from it or not. The foundation of both these has been already laid down in this book. What seems to be necessary further, is to give some examples in practice, by shewing the construction of several mechanic engines, and computing their powers. As there is great skill and sagacity in contriving fit and proper ways to perform any motion, so this is principally to be attained by practice, and a thorough acquaintance with machines of several kinds. I shall therefore give the mechanical construction of several sorts of machines, made
 Q for

FIG. for several different purposes, which will assist the reader's invention, and give him some idea how he may proceed in contriving a machine for any end proposed. Of which I shall only give a short explanation of the principal parts, not troubling the reader with any description of their minuter parts, nor how they are joined together, or strengthened, &c. it is sufficient here to shew the disposition, and nature of the principal parts: The rest belongs to carpenters, joiners, smiths, &c. and is easily understood by any one.

To compute their powers.

1. As to simple machines, they are easily accounted for, and their forces computed, by the properties of the mechanic powers.

2. For compound machines; suppose any machine divided into all the simple ones that compose it. Then begin at the power and call it 1; and by the properties of the mechanic powers, find the force with which the first simple machine acts upon the second, in numbers. Then call this force 1, and find the force it acts upon the third, in numbers. And putting this force 1, find the force acting on the fourth, in numbers; and so on to the last. Then multiplying all these numbers together, the product will give the force of the machine, supposing the first power 1.

3. When pullies are concerned in the machine; all the parts of the same running rope, that go and return about several pullies, freely and without interruption, must be all numbered alike for the force. And if any rope act against several others, it must be numbered with the sum of all these, it acts against.

4. In a combination of wheels; take the product of the number of teeth in all the wheels that act upon and move others, for the power; and the product

of

Sect. XII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

227

of the teeth in all the wheels moved by them, for the weight. Or instead of the teeth take the diameters.

FIG.

5. When a machine is in motion, if you measure the velocity of the weight, and that of the power, in numbers. Then the first number to the second, gives the proportion of the power to the weight. Other things that are more complex and difficult must be referred to the general laws of motion.

EXAMPLE I.

Scissars, pinchers, &c. may be referred to the leaver of the first kind. A *bandspike* and *crow* are leavers of the first kind. *Knives* fixt at one end, to cut wood, bread, &c. are leavers of the second kind. The *bones* in animals, also *tongs*, are leavers of the third kind. A *hammer* to draw a nail is a bended leaver.

EXAMPLE II.

A *windless*, and a *capstain* in a ship, and a *crane* to draw up goods out of a ship or boat, may be referred to the wheel and axel.

EXAMPLE III.

All *edge-tools* and instruments with a *sharp-point*, to cut, cleave, slit, chop, pierce, bore, &c as *knives, bat-chets, scissars, swords, bodkins, &c.* may be reduced to the wedge.

EXAMPLE IV.

The bar *AB* bearing a weight *C*, may be referred to the leaver; where the weight upon *A* : to the weight upon *B* :: is as *BC* : to *AC*.

186.

Q 2

EXAMPLE

FIG.

EXAMPLE V.

187. Likewise if two horses draw the weight W , in the directions A 1, B 2, by help of the *swing-tree* AB ; this may be referred to the leaver. And the strength or force at A , to that of B :: is as BC to AC .

EXAMPLE VI.

188. ACB is a *ballance*, where the brachia AC , CB being equal, the weights in the two scales D , E will be equal. The properties of a good ballance are, 1. That the points of suspension of the scales, and the center of motion of the beam, be in one right line. 2. That the brachia or arms be exactly of equal length from the center of motion. 3. That they be as long as possible with conveniency. 4. That there be as little friction as possible in the motion. 5. That the center of gravity of the beam be in, or but very little below, the center of motion. 6. That they be in equilibrium when empty.

If one brachium AC be longer than the other CB , then the weight in the scale E must be greater than that in D , to make an equilibrium. And then you will have a deceitful ballance, which being empty, or loaded with unequal weights, shall remain in equilibrium. For $AC : CB :: \text{weight in } E : \text{weight in } D$; by the property of the leaver. But changing the weights from one scale to the other, will discover the deceit; for the ballance will be no longer in equilibrium.

EXAMPLE VII.

190. The *steelyard* AB is nothing but a leaver whose fulcrum is C , the center of motion. If the weight P placed at D reduce the beam AB to an equilibrium; and there be taken the equal divisions D 1, 12, 23, 34, &c, then the weight P placed successively at 1,
2,

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

229

2, 3, 4, &c. will equiponderate with weights as W , suspended at B , which are also as the numbers 1, 2, 3, 4, &c. respectively. Moreover if the divisions D_1 , D_2 , D_3 , &c. be each $= CB$; then if P be successively placed at 1, 2, 3, &c. the weight W to ballance it, will be respectively equal to P , $2P$, $3P$, &c. that is to 1, 2, 3 pounds, if P is a pound.

FIG.

190.

For by the property of the leaver $CP \times P + CD \times P = CB \times W$, that is, $PD \times P = CB \times W$, and $CB : PD :: P : W$, universally. Whence if DP or $D_1 = CB$, then $W = P$, if DP or $D_2 = 2 CB$, then $W = 2P$, &c.

EXAMPLE VIII.

Let AB be a *cheese-press*; CE , FG are leavers moveable about the points, D , E , F , G by applying the hand at C . S , the stone or weight. H , the cheese.

189.

If $CD = 5$, $DE = 2$, $FG = 6$, $GH = 2$, $FR = 1$, $FH = 4$. then in the leaver CE , D is the fulcrum. Call the power at C 1; then the force at E or F is $\frac{5}{2}$. And in the leaver FG , whose fulcrum is G ; if the power at F be 1, the force at R is $\frac{6}{2}$, therefore the power at C , to the weight S ; is as 1 to $\frac{5}{2} \times \frac{6}{2}$ or 3. Also the weight of the stone at R , to the pressure at H , as 2 to 5 or 1 to $\frac{5}{2}$. And the power at C , is to the pressure at H , as 1 to $3 \times \frac{5}{2}$ or $7\frac{1}{2}$.

EXAMPLE IX.

Let EG be a *spinning wheel*. Diameter of the rim $EF = 18$. Diameter of the twill $ab = 2$. Diameter of the whorle $cd = 3$. $EabF$ the band going about the twill. $EcdF$ the band going about the whorle. Therefore whilst the rim makes 1 revolution the twill makes 9, and the whorle and feathers 6. therefore there are 3 revolutions of the twill, for 2 of the feathers n . And consequently the difference of the revolutions which is 1, is the quantity taken

191.

Q.3

up

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. 191. up by the twill, whilst the thread *trn* is twined by these 2 revolutions of the feathers. The greater the difference of the revolutions of the twill and feathers, the more the wheel takes up. And the nearer an equality, the more she twines. If they make equal revolutions in the same time, she will not take up at all. And if the feathers make no revolutions, she will twine none. The greater the proportion of the rim, to the whorle and twill, the faster she will do both.

EXAMPLE X.

192. A machine to raise a weight by the force of the running water *IH*, carrying the wheel *LK*, by means of the floats *F, F*. Let the diameter of the wheel *LK* be 10; of *GB*, 2; of *DC*, 11; of *AE*, 3. Let the power of the water against the floats *F*, be 1. Then the force at *B* to move the wheel *CD* will be 5; again if the power at *B* be 1, the force at *A* will be $3\frac{2}{3}$. therefore the force of the water, to the weight *W*; is as 1 to $5 \times 3\frac{2}{3}$, or as 1 to $18\frac{1}{3}$.

EXAMPLE XI.

193. In the machine *FB*, which raises the weight *W*, by means of the wheel *EG*, and the perpetual screw *BE*. Let the circumference described by the power *C* be 30 inches, the distance of two threads of the perpetual screw *E*, be 1 inch. Diameter of the wheel *EG*=5 feet, of *DA*=2. Therefore if the power at *C* be 1, the force acting at *E* to turn the wheel *EG* will be 30. And if the power at *E* be 1, the force at *D* will be $2\frac{1}{2}$. Therefore the power at *C*, to the weight *W*; is as 1 to $30 \times 2\frac{1}{2}$ or 1 to 75.

Note it is the same thing whether *CB* be streight or crooked, whilst the distance *BC*, in a streight line is the same, and in measuring, you must always take the streight line *BC*.

EXAMPLE

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

231

EXAMPLE XII.

FIG.

194.

In a machine compounded of wheels to raise a weight; let $AB=5$, diameter of the barrel $MN=2$, the number of teeth in the wheels and nuts, as follows; $CD=10$, $CE=40$, $FG=12$, $FH=50$, $KI=12$, $IL=64$. then the power applied to B , is to the weight W ; as $1 \times 10 \times 12 \times 12$ to $5 \times 40 \times 50 \times 64$; that is as 1440 to 640000, or as 1 to $444 \frac{4}{9}$.

But if the power was at W , to move the weight B ; then the ratio will be inverted. For then the power will be to the force at B ; as 444 to 1. Or if the velocity of B was required; you will have the velocity of W to that of B , as 1 to 444.

EXAMPLE XIII.

A machine to raise a weight by help of the *Triangles* $ABEF$, the windlace CC , and two pullies P , Q . Let the diameter HG where the rope goes, be $= 2$, radius $CD = 5$. Then if the power at D be 1, the force at H is 5. And if the force at H , drawn by one rope, be 1, the force at W drawn by two ropes, will be 2. Therefore the power at D , to the weight W , is as 1 to 2×5 or 10.

195.

If the leg AB be wanting; the other two may be set against a wall; or upheld by ropes; and then it is called a pair of *sheers*.

EXAMPLE XIV.

If the weight A is to be lifted by the three pullies C , D , E , of which C is fixt. Call the power at B , 1. then the force stretching AE is 1; and both together is equal to the force of $DE = 2$; and force $DA = 2$; whence force $DC = 4$; likewise force $CA = 4$. Therefore the whole force acting

196.

Q 4

at

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. at A is $1 + 2 + 4 = 7$, and the power at B to the weight A ; as 1 to 7.

EXAMPLE XV.

197. In this machine $bACD$ is a running rope fixt at D , B a fixt pulley. Let the power at b pulling the rope bA be 1. That on AC 1, and CD 1. then will AB be 2, and BC 2, BE 4. And the weight W opposing AC , BC , and DC will be $1 + 2 + 1 = 4$. Whence the power at b , to the weight W ; is as 1 to 4.

EXAMPLE XVI.

198. Another machine with pullies. A a fixt pulley. the ends of the several ropes are fixt at B , C , D , E . suppose the power at $M = 1$, then the force on AF , FB is 1; on FG , GC , 2; on GH , HD , 4; on HI , IE , 8. but the weight P acts against HI , IE , and is therefore $= 16$. And the power is to the weight as 1 to 16.

EXAMPLE XVII.

199. Let DE be a boat rowed by oars; and let ABC be one oar. Here the power acts at A , and the pin B will be the fulcrum; and the force at C acting against the water, is that which gives her motion. Let the power at A be 1; then the force at C , by which the boat is moved, is $\frac{AB}{BC}$. Whence the longer AB , or the shorter BC is, so much more power there is at A to move her forward.

Therefore long oars have the disadvantage of losing power. Yet the oars may be too short as well as too long. For if they be very short, the motion of the boat will allow little time to strike, and they will have but small force to act against the water with, in so small a time, as well as from the slow motion of

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES

of the end *C*; which is a disadvantage on the other side side.

233

FIG.

199.

EXAMPLE XVIII.

Let *FR* be a ship, *AS* a sail. Suppose a plumb-line drawn through the center of gravity of the section of the ship and water; and another line *BO*, parallel to the horizon and to the axis or keel of the ship, and to pass through the center of pressure or resistance of the ship, which she has by the water in her motion. Let this intersect the former plumbline in *O*. Through *C* the center of gravity of the sail, draw *CD* perpendicular to the sail; and *CB* perpendicular to *BO*, and *AS* in the plane of the triangle *CBD*.

200

Then if *DC* be the force of the wind against the sail *AS*, then *DB* is the force generating her progressive motion, and *BC* is the force lifting the ship upwards. Now the force *DB*, acting at *C*, in direction *DB*, endeavours to turn the ship, round an axis passing thro' *O*; with a force which is equal to the absolute force $BD \times$ by the distance *CB*, or $CB \times BD$; and this is the force by which her head is depressed. Likewise the force *BC*, in direction *BC*, endeavours to turn the ship round an axis at *O*, the contrary way; and that with the force $BC \times$ distance *BO*, or $BC \times BO$; and this is the force that raises her head. Therefore the force to raise her head is to the force to depress it, as $CB \times BO$ to $CB \times BD$, or as *BO* to *BD*.

Hence, if the point *D* fall before *O*, then the sail endeavours to raise the ship's head; if it be behind *O*, it endeavours to sink it. If it be in *O*, it will keep her steady. And the height of the sail *AS* contributes nothing to her progressive motion; the same ratio of the absolute to the progressive force, remains still as *CD* to *DB*.

EXAMPLE

EF is a *Cart* or *Carriage*, *BD* a rub for the wheel *CAD* to pass over, *AB* the horizontal plane; *DB*, *AC* perp. and *OD* parallel to *AB*. *C* the center of the wheel. Then the horizontal force required to pull the wheel over the rub *BD*, is as $\frac{DO}{CO}$. And the

difficulty of going over rubs increases in a greater ratio than that of their heights. Also the higher the wheels, the more easily they pass over them; but then they are more apt to overturn. To draw the cart with the least power over the rub *BD*, it should not be drawn in the horizontal direction *AB* or *OD*; but in the direction *AD*. The advantage of high wheels, is that they pass the rubs most easily, and they have also less friction; And sink less in the dirt; and more easily press down an obstacle. But their disadvantage is, that they easily overturn; they also make cattle draw too high; for they can apply their strength best when they draw low and upward, as in the direction *AD*; which is the advantage of low wheels. Yet if the wheels are high, they may be made to draw low, by fixing the limmers or traces as far as below the axle as you will, which will then be an equal advantage with low wheels. For the power not pulling at the wheel, but at the carriage, may draw from any part of it. There is another advantage in small wheels, that they are better to turn with.

A *waggon* with four wheels is more advantageous than a cart with only two wheels; especially on sand, clay, &c. narrow wheels and narrow plates are a disadvantage. There is a great deal of friction in all carriages, as is evident by the force required to draw them upon plain ground. And for that reason experience can only inform us how much force is able to draw any carriage. To make the resistance as small

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

235

as can be, axles of iron, running in brass boxes in the wheel naves, go the easiest. FIG. 201.

The spokes in the wheel ought to be a little inclined outwards; that when a wheel sinks into a rut, the spokes (bearing then the greatest weight) may be nearly perp. to the horizon.

The underfide of the axle-tree, where the wheels run ought to be nearly in a right line; if they slant much upward towards the ends, the wheel will work against the lin pin. Yet this causes the wheels to be farther asunder at top than at bottom, in the rut, because the ends of the axle-tree are conical; which is an inconvenience.

EXAMPLE XX,

Suppose the *waggon* *FG* is moved forward, by a power acting within it. Which power turns the wheel *DE* by the spokes *AD*, *AD*, &c. and *DE* turns the wheel *IC* which carries the waggon. Let the power at *A* be 1, then the force acting at *E* will be $\frac{DA}{DE}$; also if the power at *E* be 1. The force at *C*, by which the waggon is moved, will be $\frac{BE}{BC}$. Therefore the power at *A*, to the force by which the waggon can be moved; is as 1 to $\frac{DA \times BE}{DE \times BC}$. Or the power is to that force, as $DE \times BC$ to $DA \times EB$. It will be the same thing, if instead of teeth, the wheel *DE* carries *EB* by a chain going round them. You must suppose the like wheels on the opposite side.

Hence if the absolute force to move the waggon without, be 1; the force within, applied at *A* to move it, will be $\frac{DE \times BC}{BE \times DA}$.

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE XXI.

ABCD are the sails of a windmill, all alike inclined to their common axis, and facing the wind, and turning about in the order *ABCD*. *WC* the direction of the wind parallel to the axis *EH*. Since *WC* is perpendicular to *EC*, draw *CF* in the sail perpendicular to *EC*, then the angle *WCF* will be the angle of incidence of the wind upon the sail. Therefore the force of the wind to turn the sails about the axis *EH* is as the square of the sine of the angle *WCF* $\times$ by its cosine. And the force acting against the mill in direction of the axis *EH* is as the cube of the sine of *WCF*. Now since the force of the wind to turn the sails round, is as $S.WCF^2 \times \cos. WCF$, therefore when that force is the greatest, the angle *WCF* will be $54^\circ : 44'$.

And this is the most advantageous position of the sails to move them from rest; and would always be so, if the wind struck them in the same angle when moving as when at rest. But by reason of the swift motion of the sails especially near the end *G*; the wind strikes them under a far less angle; and not only so, but as the motion at the end *G* is so swift, it may strike them on the backside. Therefore it will be more advantageous to make the angle of incidence *WCF* greater, and so much more as it is further from *E*. Therefore at the places *n*, *o*, *G*, the tangents of the angles ought to be nearly as the distances, *En*, *EO*, *EG*. And therefore the sails ought to be twisted, so as at *r* to lye more sharp to the wind; and at *G* almost to face it. And by that means they will avoid the backwind.

EXAMPLE XXII.

204.

GB is a common sucking pump. *GKL* the handle, *CD* the bucket. *E*, *F* two clacks opening upwards. When the end *L* is put down, the end *G* raises the sucker or bucket *CD*, and the valve or clack *F* shuts;

I

and

SECT. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

237

FIG.
204.

and the water above the bucket being raised, the weight of the atmosphere is taken off the water underneath in the pump. Then the pressure of the external air in the pit or well *MN*, raises the water up the pump, opens the valve *E*, and ascends thro' the hole *B* into the body of the pump *DB*. Again when the handle *L* is raised, the bucket *CD* descends, the valve *F* opens, and lets the water ascend through it, and the pressure of the water shuts the valve *E*, so that the water cannot return through *B*. Then whilst the end *L* is put down again, the sucker *CD* is raised again, together with the water above it, whilst more ascends through *B*. So that at every stroke of the handle water is raised into the pump; till at last it flows thro' the pipe *H*.

If the bucket *CD* be more than 30 or 32 feet from the surface of the water *MN* in the pit, no water will ascend above it; for the pressure of the atmosphere reaches no further. Therefore it must always be within that distance, or this pump is useless for raising water.

The weight of water which the bucket lifts at each stroke is that of a column of water whose height is *MH*, and its diameter that of the bore of the pump at *CD* where the bucket goes. Therefore as *GK* to *KL* :: so the power applied at *L*, to that weight. therefore it signifies nothing where the bucket is placed, as to the weight of water. If a leak happens in the barrel of the pump below the bucket *CD*; the air will get in and hinder the working of the pump: If above *CD*, only some water will be lost; therefore *CD* should be placed low; but then it will be bad to come at to repair it.

The bucket, sucker, or piston is to be surrounded with leather to fit exactly, and must move freely up and down in the barrel, and also must exactly fill it. of valves or clacks, some are flat, made of leather; others are conical; and they must all fit very close; and move freely. To ballance the weight of water,
the

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. the handle KL is commonly made heavy, as of iron, with a knob at the end L .

EXAMPLE XXIII.

206. If a man sitting in the scale E be in equilibrio with a weight in the scale A ; and if he thrust against the beam CB , with a stick or otherwise, in direction ED , and by that means thrusts out the scale E to the position BE . Then the man in the scale E will overbalance the other scale A , and raise the weight. For let EL be perp. to FB ; then the force at E to turn the scales is to the contrary force at F , as CL to CF or CB . For it is the same thing as if E was suspended at L .

205. And when the perpendicular obstacle GH hinders the scale from going out; and the center C is also kept steady. Yet the scale E will still preponderate. For let ED be the force acting against D ; this is equivalent to the two forces EB , BD , acting at E , and D . The force BD tending to or from the center, does nothing. But the force EB at E , acting at the distance CB , its power to bring down the scale E is $CB \times BE$. And the same force acting at D , its power to push up the scale is $CD \times BE$. And their difference $DB \times BE$ is the absolute force to thrust down the scale. And this force is to the whole thrusting force DE , as DB to DE . And if D were on the other side of C , the force would still be $DB \times BE$, or $\overline{CB} + \overline{CD} \times BE$.

But if the scale E was not moveable about B , as if it were ty'd by the cord DE ; then no force acting against any part of the beam FB , would have any effect to destroy the equilibrium.

EXAMPLE XXIV.

207. Suppose a man A standing upon the plank CB , supported only at one end C , and pulling the end B towards

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

239

towards him by the rope EB , in order to keep himself and the plank from falling. FIG. 207.

Imagine the man and the plank to be one body; then the action and reaction in direction EB , destroy one another, and his pulling does nothing. It would therefore be in vain for him to endeavour to support himself by that force; for both he and the plank must fall down together towards B , by their own weight.

EXAMPLE XXV.

CD is a machine with two wheels fixed to an axis DF , round which goes a cord $GDFE$. There is a power at E endeavouring to draw the machine towards E , in a direction parallel to the horizon HO , by the cord EF , going under the axis DF . In the radius AH of the wheel, take AB equal to the radius of the axle DF , towards H , because the string goes below it. Then the force to move the machine, is the same as if the string was fixt at B ; where H is the fulcrum, A the weight. Then the force to move the machine towards E , with the given power E , will be as BH . Therefore it would be in vain, by pulling at the string, to endeavour to make the body roll towards D , the contrary way. But if DF was greater than the diameter of the wheel, that is, if B falls beyond H ; then the force drawing towards E , would move the body towards D the contrary way. 208.

If the direction of the power DE be elevated above the horizon as fe ; then the machine would approach or recede, till the direction of the string ef fell upon the point of contact H , and there it would rest.

EXAMPLE XXVI.

AB is an artificial kite, kept up by the wind blowing in direction WC , by drawing the string $AIBIH$, fixt at A and B . The kite will gain such a position, 209.
that

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. that HI produced will pass through the center of gravity of its surface at C . Draw CO perp. to BA , and DO perp. to the horizon HO . Then OC is the direction of the force of the wind acting against the kite; and the force of the wind to keep her up, is as the square of the sine of the angle ACW or COD . Now if DO represent the given weight of the kite, CO will be the force of the wind acting against her, and CD the force pulling at the string. The tail EF (with a bullet F at the end) being always blown from the wind, keeps her head always towards the wind.

As the direction of the thread always passes thro' C , therefore the angle ACH and consequently HCO , will always be the same at all altitudes. And she can never ascend so high, till the angle of altitude CHO be equal to ACH . And hence it follows, that the lesser the angle HCO is made, the higher she will rise. And likewise the greater the wind is, or the lighter the kite, *ceteris paribus*, the higher she will rise.

210. After a like manner a machine as ab may be contrived, to keep at the top of a running water, being held by the string de tied to a stone and sunk to the bottom. ab is a thin board, b a piece of lead to sink the end b , but the whole must be lighter than water, cd an iron pin fixt at c . Or the machine may have a loose tail at b , heavier than water, as in the kite.

EXAMPLE XXVII.

211. If AB is a machine to be moved by a power acting at C out of the machine, in direction DC . DF , GI , two leavers within the machine, moveable about the two fixt fulcrums E , H .

Call the power at C , 1; then the force at F to move the leaver GI , is $\frac{DE}{EF}$. Then if the force at F be 1, that at the obstacle I out of the machine, is $\frac{GH}{HI}$. There-

fore

SECT. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

241

FIG.
211.

fore if the power at C be 1, the force acting against the obstacle at I , or which is the same thing, the force urging forward the machine towards B , is

$\frac{DE \times GH}{EF \times HI}$. But the power at C draws back the machine with the force 1. Therefore the absolute force

urging forward the machine is $\frac{DE \times GH}{EF \times HI} - 1$ or

$$\frac{DE \times GH - EF \times HI}{EF \times HI}.$$

Note, if the force at F be 1; the force against H , is $\frac{FI}{HI}$. But this is not the force urging forward the machine, but to tear her in pieces, or to separate the fulcrums E , H , from one another.

If there had been three leavers, and the power at D ; the third, had been directed towards K , the way the machine goes; then the power 1 must be added to the force at I , and the whole is the force urging forward the machine.

Hence if the absolute direct force to move the machine be 1, the power applied at D , which is able to move it, will be $\frac{EF \times HI}{DE \times GH - EF \times HI}$. But if the power at D act within the machine; this power would only be $\frac{EF \times HI}{DE \times GH}$: since there is then no force to be deducted, for drawing back the machine.

EXAMPLE XXVIII.

$DABH$ is a wooden-bridge, AC , AD , AB , BH , BO , beams of timber. DE , EL , SR , RH , braces to strengthen the angles A , B . The strefs upon any of the angles, is *ceteris paribus*, so much greater as the angle is greater. But the strength on any angle A , is as the perpendicular AP .

212;

R

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE XXIX.

213.

AB a sailing chariot. *CDEF* horizontal sails, so contrived that the sails *D* facing the wind may expand, and those going from the wind may contract. The sails are turned about by the wind coming from any coast. These sails turn the axis and trundle *GH*. And the trundle turns the wheel *IL* by the coggs in it. Therefore the chariot may move in any direction. *R* is a rudder to steer with.

Suppose the chariot to go against the wind. Let *D* be the center of pressure of the two sails *C, D*, the wind blows on. And let the power (that is the force of the wind acting against the sails) be 1, then the force against the teeth in *IL*, is $\frac{GD}{OH}$. And this force being 1, the force at *L* is also 1. Therefore the power at *D* to the force at *L*; is as 1 to $\frac{GD}{OH}$; or as *OH* to *GD*. Now since the mast is strained by the power falling on the sails, therefore by this power *OH* the chariot is urged backward. And by the force at *L* which is *GD*, it is urged forward. Let *R* be the force of the wind upon the body of the chariot, together with the friction in moving. Therefore if *GD* is greater than the radius *OH* + *R*, the chariot will move forward against the wind; if less, backward. But if they be equal, it will stand still.

EXAMPLE XXX.

214.

FG a chariot or waggon to sail against the wind. *S* the sails of a windmill, turning in the order 1, 2, 3. As the sails go round; the pinion *A* moves *B*, and the trundle *C* moves *D*, which has both teeth and coggs. *D* by its teeth moves *E*; and the trundle *E* fixt to the axle-

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

243

axle-tree carries round the wheels *H*, *I* which move the waggon, in direction *HG*.

FIG.

214.

The sails are set at an angle of 45° , so the force to turn them and the force in direction of the axis, will be equal. This waggon will always go against the wind, provided you give the sails power enough, by the combination of the wheels. but then her motion will be so much slower.

EXAMPLE XXXI.

Let *AB* be part of a rope. *cd*, *cd*, &c. the particular strands running about in a spiral manner. Let *FH* be the axis of the rope, the angle *GFH* or *HFK* the obliquity of the strands. Draw *KH*, *GH* parallel to *FG*, *FK*, and draw *GEK*. Then the tension of the rope in direction *HF*, is to the stress on all the strands in direction *FG*; as *FH* to *FG + FK* or *FG + GH*, that is, as *EF* to *FG*. Therefore the absolute force by which the rope is stretched, is to the strain or stress upon all the strands, or upon the twisted rope; as *FE* is to *FG*; and so is the length of any part of the rope, to the correspondent length of a strand.

215.

Hence ropes the least twisted are strongest and bear the most weight; and the harder they are twisted the sooner they will break. And for the same reason if they be double twisted, they will be weaker still. But as it is very difficult to make all the fibres pull equally without twisting, and impossible to make a rope hold together without it: Therefore it is necessary it have as much as to prevent, the fibres from drawing out; and a small degree will not much impair its strength.

EXAMPLE XXXII.

ABC a syphon or crane. If the shorter end *AB* be immersed in a vessel of water *AD*, then by applying the mouth to the end *C*; and sucking till the water

216.

R 2

comes,

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. comes, it will continue to flow out at the end *C*, as
 216. long as that end is lower than the surface of the water at *D*. If there be a mouth-piece at *E*, then sucking at *E* (whilst the end *C* is stopt with the finger) will make the water flow, when the finger is taken off. And when the water is begun to flow, the hole at *E* should be stopped up, or else the water will flow no longer than till the surface at *D* be as low as *E*.

The reason of its flowing is this: the perpendicular height of the column of water *BC* being greater than that of *BD*; the pressure at *C* is greater than that at *D*; and the pressure of the atmosphere being the same at *D* and *C*; therefore the greater weight at *C* will make it flow out there; whilst the pressure of the atmosphere at *D*, forces more water up the tube *DB*; and so keeps it continually running as long as there is any water, and the end *C* continues lower than the surface at *D*. But if *C* is higher than *D*, the water will return back into *BD*. But if the height *DB* exceed the pressure of the atmosphere which is 30 or 32 feet; then it cannot be made to flow out at the end *C*; or if there be a hole in the syphon higher than the surface at *D*; the air will get in, and the water will return through *BD*. Or if the syphon be very wide, the air will insinuate itself into the end *C*, between the water and the tube; which will hinder it from running. To prevent which the end *C* may be immersed into another vessel of water, lower than the surface at *D*. If the ends of the syphon be turned up, as *FG*; then the water will remain in the syphon after it has done working, which in the other will all run out.

EXAMPLE XXXIII.

217. *CDLF* a vessel of water; *AB* a tube open at both ends, and about $\frac{1}{8}$ inch diameter. *AE* a quantity of mercury put into the tube. Then stopping the end *B*, let the other end *A* be immersed deep enough in the water.

SECT. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

245

water. Then opening the end *B*, the mercury will sink so deep in the tube, till the height of the water *AB* be 14 times the height of the mercury *AE*: And then the mercury will be at rest. FIG. 217.

For the specific gravities of water and mercury being 1 and 14, the column of water *AB* will be equal in weight with the column of mercury *AE*. Therefore the pressures at *A* being equal, they will sustain one another.

EXAMPLE XXXIV.

A, *B*, are two barometers. *ed* is a tube, its bore $\frac{1}{4}$ or $\frac{1}{2}$ inch diameter at least, close at top, and communicating with the vessel *C*, with mercury in it. *C* is open to the external air. The use of this instrument is to shew the weight of the atmosphere, and its variations. This tube and vessel with mercury, is put into a frame, and hung perpendicular. Near the top of the tube is placed a scale of inches, by which the height of the mercury in the tube is known, and likewise a scale for the weather. At the top of the tube above the mercury, is a vacuum. Now the atmosphere pressing upon the surface of the mercury at *C*, keeps the mercury suspended at the height *d* in the tube, which therefore will be higher or lower according to the weight of the atmosphere. The height of the mercury in the tube is generally 28, 29, or 30 inches; seldom more. If any air get into the tube it spoils the machine. Lest the quicksilver stick to the glass, it is good to drum a little with the fingers upon it, in making any observation. 218.

Rules for observation of the weather.

1. The rising of the mercury presages fair weather; and its falling, foul weather. it being generally high in good weather; and low in rainy or windy weather,

R 3

2. In

FIG.

218.

2. In very hot weather, the falling of the mercury foreshews thunder.

3. In winter the rising foretells frost; and falling in frosty weather foretells thaw.

4. In continual frost, the rising presages snow.

5. When foul weather happens soon after the falling of the mercury; or fair weather after its rising; expect but little of it.

6. In foul weather arising fast and high, and continuing so two or three days before the foul weather be quite over; expect a continuance of fair weather to follow.

7. In fair weather, falling fast and low, and continuing two or three days before the rain comes; expect a great deal of wet, and probably high winds.

8. Unsettled motion of the mercury denotes unsettled weather.

EXAMPLE XXXV.

219

ABE is an *artificial fountain*. *A* is an open vessel, *B* a close one; *E* may be made close by stopping the hole *C*; these vessels all communicate by the tubes *F*, *G*. The tube *F* reaches near the top of *E*, and the tube *G* near the bottom of *B*. Pour water into *C* almost to the top of the pipe *F*; and stop the hole *C*. Then pour water into *A* which will run down into *B*. Then open the cock *D*, and the water will spout up to the height of *AB* above *D*. For the air in *B*, *F*, *E*, is condensed by the weight of the column of water *AB*; and its pressure on the water in *C*, is equal to the weight of that column; and will therefore make the

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

the water spout to that height above the water in *C*, nearly. But the pipe leading to *D* must be turned curve.

247
FIG.
219.

EXAMPLE XXXVI.

AB is a *dart* or an *arrow*; at *A*, 3 or 4 feathers are placed nearly in planes passing through the arrow. If the feathers were exactly in this plane, the air could not strike against the feathers, when the arrow is in motion. But since they are not set perfectly streight, but always a little aslant; whilst the arrow moves forward, the air strikes the slant sides of the feathers; by which force the feathers are turned round, and with the feathers the arrow or reed. So there is generated a motion about the axis of the arrow; which motion will be swifter as they stand more aslant. This motion is like the motion of the sails and axle of a windmill, turned round by the wind. The head *B* is made of lead or iron, and will therefore go foremost in the air; and the feathered end *A* the hindmost, as being lighter. An arrow will fly about 50 yards in a second.

220.

EXAMPLE XXXVII.

AB is a vessel which keeps its liquor till filled to a certain height; and if filled higher lets it all run out. *EFG* is a crooked pipe or crane open at both ends. if water be poured into the vessel, it will continue in it till it rises above *F*, and ascend to the same height in the pipe *EF*. But rising above *F*, the pressure at *E* will make it run out through the pipe *EFG*, till the surface of the fluid descend as low as *E*. This is sometimes called Tantalus's Cup. The funnel *EFG* may be put in the handle of this cup; which will look neater.

221.

DESCRIPTION OF

EXAMPLE XXXVIII.

BC, CG are two bones of an animal, moveable about the joint *FK*, by help of the muscle *KD*. The joints of an animal's are either spherical or circular, and the cavity they move in, is accordingly either spherical or circular. And the center of motion is in the center of the sphere or circle, as at *C*. Let *W* be a weight hanging at *B*, and draw *CP, CK* perpendicular to *BW, KD*. Then if the weight *W* be suspended by the strength of the muscle *KD*; it will be as $CK : PC :: W : \text{tension of the muscle } KD$.

The bone *BC* is moved about the joint *FK*, by the strength of the muscle *KD*. For when the muscle is contracted, the point *K* is moved towards *D*; and the end *B* towards *E*, about the immoveable center of motion *C*. The strength of the muscles is surprizingly great.

Borelli (in his book *de motu animalium*, Part I. Prop 22.) computes the force of the muscles to bend the arm at the elbow; and says a strong young fellow can sustain at armsend, a weight of 28 lb. taking inn the weight of the arm. And he finds the length of *CB* to *CK* to be in a greater proportion than that of 20 to 1. Whence he infers the strength of these muscles to be so great, as to bear a stretch at least of 560 lb.

It is evident that all animal bodies are machines. For what are the bones but leavers, moved by a certain power placed in the muscles, which act as so many ropes pulling at the bones, and moving them about the joints? Every joint representing the fulcrum or center of motion. What are all the vessels but tubes which contain fluids of different sorts, destined for the use or motion of the several parts of the machine? And which by opening or shutting certain valves, let out or retain their contents as occasion requires; or convey them to distant places, by other tubes communicating therewith. And therefore all these

these motions of an animal body are subject to the FIG.
general laws of mechanics.

EXAMPLE XXXIX.

The motion of a *man* walking, running, &c. will easily be accounted for. Let us first suppose a man sitting in a chair; he cannot rise from his seat, till by thrusting his head and body forward, and his feet and legs backward, the line of direction, or the perpendicular from the center of gravity, pass through his feet, as the base. Likewise when we stand upon our feet, the line of direction must fall between our feet. Otherwise we cannot stand but must fall down towards the side the center of gravity lies on. And when a man stands firm upon his feet, his legs make an isosceles triangle, the center of gravity lying between them. And then he is not supported by the strength of the muscles, but by the bones of the legs and thighs, which then stand in a right line with one another. 223.

When a man *AC* endeavours to walk, he first extends his hindmost leg and foot *S* almost to a right line, and at the same time bends a little the knee *H* of his fore-leg. Thus his hind leg is lengthened, and his fore-leg shortened; by this means his body is moved forward, till the center of gravity *V* falls beyond the fore-foot *B*; and then being ready to fall, he presently prevents it, by taking up the hind foot, and by bending the joints of the hip, knee, and ankle, and suddenly translating it forward to *T* beyond the center of gravity: And thus he gains a new station. After the same manner by extending the foot and leg *HB*, and thrusting forward the center of gravity, beyond the foot *S*, and then translating the foot *B* forward, he gains a third station. And thus is walking continued at pleasure.

His two feet do not go in one right line, but in two lines parallel to one another. Therefore a man walking

DESCRIPTION OF

- FIG. ing has a libratory motion, from one side to the other :
 223. And it is not possible to walk in a right line.

Walking on plain ground is easy, pleasant, and performed with little labour. But in going up hill is very laborious, by reason of the great flexure of the joints required to ascend, and their suffering more stress from the weight of the body in that position. Descending down hill is, for the same reason, more laborious, than walking on plain ground, but not so bad as ascending.

The walking of birds is not unlike that of men; only their weight is entirely supported by the strength of the muscles; since their joints are always bent. Also their feet go in two parallel lines.

A man in walking always sets down one foot before the other be taken up: And therefore at every step he has both feet upon the ground. But in running he never sets one down till the other be up. So that at each step he has but one foot upon the ground, and all the intermediate time, none. A good footman will run 400 yards in a minute.

EXAMPLE XL.

224. When a *beast* stands, the line of gravity must fall within the quadrilateral made by his four feet. And when he walks, he has always 3 feet on the ground, and one up. Suppose he first takes up the hind foot *C*. Before he does this, by extending his leg backwards, he thrusts forward his body and the center of gravity, then taking up the foot *C* he moves it forward to *F*. Then he immediately takes up the forefoot *B* on the same side, and carries it to *H*; then he takes up the hind foot *D*, and translates it forward; and then the forefoot *A*; then *F* again, and so on.

When he trots, he takes up two together, and sets down two together, diagonally opposite.

When he gallops, he takes up his feet one by one, and sets them down one by one; though some animals

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

251

mals strike with the two forefeet nearly at once, and the two hind feet near at once, and have not above two feet on the ground at once. A good horse will run half a mile in a minute. FIG. 224.

Animals with 6 or more feet, take up the hindmost first; then the next, and then the next in order, to the foremost, all on one side; and after that all the feet on the other side in the same order beginning at the last. If they were to take up the foremost first, the animals would move backward.

EXAMPLE XLI.

AD is a bird flying in the air, by help of the wings *F, T*; and the tail *C*. The structure of their wings are such, that in striking downward they expand to their greatest breadth, and become almost two planes, being something hollow on the underside. And these planes are not then horizontal, but inclined, so that the back part *K* is higher than the fore part *DFG*. But in moving the wings upward to fetch a new stroke, they go with the edge *DFG* foremost, and the wings contract and become hollow. Their bodies are specifically lighter than men or beasts. Their bones and feathers are extremely porous, hollow, and light. The muscles by which their wings are moved downwards are exceeding large, being not less than a sixth part of the weight of the whole body. When a bird is upon the ground and intends to fly, he takes a large leap; and stretching his wings right from his body, he strikes them downwards with great force, by which they are put into an oblique position; and the resistance of the air, acting strongly against them by the stroke, impells them, and the bird, in a direction perpendicular to their planes: which is in an oblique direction, or partly upwards, and partly horizontally forward: the part of the force tending upwards is destroyed by the weight of the bird; the horizontal force serves to carry him forward. The stroke

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG.

225.

stroke being over, he moves his wings upwards, which being contracted, and turning their edges upward, they cut through the air without any resistance; and being sufficiently elevated, he takes a second stroke downwards, and the impulse of the air moves him forwards as before. And so from one stroke to another; which are only like so many leaps taken in the air.

When he has a mind to turn to the right or left, he strikes strongly with the opposite wing, which impells him to the contrary side. The tail acts like the rudder of a ship, except only that it moves him upwards or downwards instead of sideways; because its plane is horizontal. If a bird wants to rise, he puts his tail into the position *LH*; or if he would fall, into the position *LI*. Whilst it is in the horizontal position *LC*, it keeps him steady.

A bird can by spreading his wings continue to move horizontally for some time, without striking. For having acquired a sufficient velocity; by keeping his wings parallel to the horizon, they meet with no resistance; and when he begins to fall by his weight, he can easily steer himself upward by his tail; till his motion be almost spent, and then he must renew it by two or three more strokes of his wings. When he lights, he expands his wings and tail full against the air; that they may meet with all the resistance possible. The center of gravity of a bird is something behind the wings; to remedy which, they thrust out their head and neck, in flying; which carries the center of gravity more forward.

It is impossible that ever Men can fly, by the strength of their arms. For their pectoral muscles are vastly too weak to support such a weight. For in a man they are not the 60th part of the rest of the muscles of the body: But in a bird they are more than all the others put together.

Some birds will fly 1000 yards in a minute.

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE XLII.

FIG.

226.

AB is a *fish* swimming; which he does by help of his fins and tail. A fish is nearly of the same specific gravity as water; and most fish have a bladder *L*, which they can expand or contract, and so make themselves lighter or heavier than water, in order to rise or fall in it. The muscular force by which the tail is moved, is very great. The direct motion of a fish is by means of his tail *BCD*, moving from one side to the other with a vibrating motion. Which he performs thus: Suppose his tail in the position *FG*, being about to move it successively to *H*, *I* and *K*; he turns the end *G* oblique to the water, which being moved swiftly through it in that position; the resistance of the water acts obliquely against his tail and moves him partly forward and partly laterally. The lateral motion is corrected the next stroke, the contrary way; but the progressive motion is continued always forward. When his tail is arrived at *K*, he turns its obliquity the contrary way; that in moving back to *G*, it may strike the water in the same manner as before. And thus he makes one stroke after another, and moves forward thereby as far as he pleases. The oblique position of his tail is mostly owing to the elasticity of his tail, which, by bending, is put into that form by the resistance of the water. They can exert a very great force with their tail, and which is necessary, to overcome the resistance which their bodies meet with in the water. By help of the tail they also turn to one side; by striking strongly with it on that side; and keeping it bent, which then acts like the rudder of a ship. The fins of a fish serve to keep him upright, especially the belly fins *E*; which act like two feet; without them he would swim with his belly up; for his center of gravity lies near his back. His fins also help him to ascend or descend, by expanding or contracting them, as he can

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. can with pleasure ; and putting them in a proper position. His tail will also help him to rise and fall, by inclining it obliquely, and turning a little, from an erect position, to one side. Fish can swim but slow, yet some of them will swim 70 or 80 yards in a minute ; but they soon tire.

Brutes can swim naturally, for they are specifically lighter than water ; and require to have but a small part of their head out, for breathing. Also they naturally use their legs in swimming, after the same manner as they do when walking.

Birds swim very easily, being much lighter than water ; and readily move themselves along with their web feet.

Men cannot swim naturally, though they are specifically lighter than water. For their heads are very large, and require to be almost all out of the water for breathing. And their way of striking has no relation to that of walking. Men attain the art of swimming by practice and industry. And this art consists in striking alternately with the hands and feet in the water ; which like oars, will row him forward. When he strikes with his hands, he neither keeps the palms parallel nor perpendicular to the horizon ; but inclined. And his hands striking the water obliquely, the resistance of the water moves him partly upward, and partly forward. Whilst his hands are striking, he gradually draws up his feet ; and when the stroke of his arms is over, he strikes with his feet, by extending his legs, and thrusting the soles of his feet full against the water. And while he strikes with his legs, he brings about his arms for a new stroke ; and so on alternately. He must keep his body a little oblique, that he may more easily erect his head, and keep his mouth above water.

After the same manner may the motions, velocities, powers, and properties of any machine be explained and accounted for, by mechanical principles. I shall proceed to lay down a short description of several

several other machines, without being so particular in the calculation of their powers and forces. The mechanism of which being understood, will assist the invention of the practical Mechanic, in contriving a machine for any use.

FIG.

EXAMPLE XLIII.

AB a machine to raise a weight, and stay it in any position. *CD* a roller turned by the handle *E*. to the roller is fixt the wheel *F*. *GH* is a piece of mettles moveable about *H*, and forked at the end *G*, where it falls into the teeth of the wheel *F*. As the roller is turned, the weight is raised by the rope *IKL*. And the piece *G*, slides freely over the teeth of the wheel; till the machine is stopt, and then the piece *G* falling in between the teeth, keeps the wheel fixt there, that it cannot turn back again with the weight. 227.

EXAMPLE XLIV.

KI is a machine to raise or depress the leaver *GH*, moveable about an axis at *H*, and to keep it at any position. *bf* a string fixt at *f*, and *a*, and going in the order *abcdef*, through the holes *b*, *c*, *d*, *e*. *IK* being put up or down, raises or lowers the beam *GH*, at pleasure. And more or fewer holes may be made in the piece *IK*, as occasion requires. 228.

EXAMPLE XLV.

CD another machine to stay a weight in any position. This is only a cylinder of wood, upon which is cut a channel for the rope to go in. If the weight *B* be lifted up, and *A* pulled down; then *B* will remain in any given position, by the friction of the cylinder and rope. And there may be taken as many turns of the rope about the cylinder, as there is occasion for. 229.

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE XLVI.

C is a clock weight carrying the two wheels *A* and *B*. *D* the counterpoise. *F* a pulley. *ADBFA* an endless cord. When the weight is down, draw the cord *G*, till the weight *C* rise to the top; then the pin *e* keeps the wheel *A* from turning backwards.

EXAMPLE XLVII.

231. *ADB* a machine for reckoning the number of strokes or vibrations made. *DH* is a wheel moving about a fixt axis, upon the neck of which axis goes a brass spring *L*, to keep the wheel from shaking. *AB* a piece of wood or metal, cut away between *I* and *K* to receive the wheel. The plane of the piece *AIKB* is perpendicular to the plane of the wheel. *F*, *G* are two staples to guide the motion of the piece *AB* back and forward. When the piece *AB* is moved from *A* towards *B*; the edge at *I* catches the tooth *C*, and sliding along the edge, moves the wheel about from *C* to *D*; this brings the tooth *E* to the edge *K*. And when the piece *AB* is moved back from *B* to *A*, the edge at *K* sliding down the tooth *E*, moves the wheel from *E* to *H*; which brings another tooth before the edge *I*. So that at every motion of *AB* back and forward; the wheel is moved the breadth of one tooth. And if the teeth be numbered, the index *M* will shew when the wheel has made one revolution.

EXAMPLE XLVIII.

232. *ABED* a machine moving one circle within another, concentric to it. *ABC* represents a flat ring of brass; and *abe* a smaller concentric ring lodged in a circular grove, turned within the larger; and kept in the grove by three small plates of brass, fixt to the outward ring, and reaching over the edge of the inner one

SECT. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

one. Upon the inner ring is fixed a concentric arch of a wheel *de*, having teeth in it, which are driven round by the threads of an endless screw *DF*, turning in a collar at *E*, and upon a point at *F*, both fixed to the outward ring. By means of this screw, any point of the circle *abc* may be set to a given point of the circle *ABF*, by turning the screw *DEF*.

227
FIG.
232.

EXAMPLE XLIX.

ABE is a crane for hoisting goods up. *AF* is a double wheel, within which a man *A* walks, and by his weight raises the weight *W*, by help of the rope *FBEW*, which goes round the axis of the wheel at *F*. At *D* are 2 pulleys, one vertical and one horizontal; the vertical pulley facilitates the motion of the rope in hoisting the weight; and the horizontal one serves for the rope to run on, when the crane *CDE* and weight *W* are drawn aside, by the rope *GH*, in order to be lowered. *CDE* moves about the axis *BC*. At *E* is another pulley, for the rope to run on. If the rope *FBEI* go about a pulley at *I*, and be fixt with its end at *E*, the crane will lift twice the weight.

233.

EXAMPLE L.

AB a sailing chariot. This is driven by the wind by help of the sails *C, D*. *R* is the rudder. The wheels must be set at a greater distance, or the axletree made longer, than in common chariots, to prevent overturning. Sailing chariots are proper for large planes and champion countries; and are said to be frequent in China.

234.

EXAMPLE LI.

BE is a smoak jack. *AB* is a horizontal wheel wherein the wings or sails are inclined to the horizon. The smoak or rarefied air moving up the chimney at *S*

235.

B

DESCRIPTION OF

- FIG. *B*, strikes these sails, which being oblique, are therefore moved about the axis of the wheel, together with the pinion *C*, *C* carries the wheel *D* and *E*; and *E* carries the chain or rope *F*, which turns the spit. The wheel *AB* must be placed in the strait part of the chimney, where the motion of the air is swiftest; and that the greatest part of it may strike upon the sails. The force of this machine is so much greater as the fire is greater.

EXAMPLE LII.

236. An engine to make a *hammer strike*. *W* the water wheel 7 or 8 yards diameter. *D, D* the floats. *BC* the axle 3 or 4 feet diameter. *H* the hammer 3 or 400 weight, moveable about the axis *OP*. *I, K* four cogs in the axis lifting up the hammer as the axis goes round, that it may fall on the anvil *A*. *FG* a beam of wood acting as a spring to give the greater force to the hammer. *MN* the course of the water, down an inclined plane. *M* the place where it issues out. *LM* the perp. height of the water, 3 yards. All the machine, except the water wheel is within the house.
237. A hammer may also be made to strike thus; *A* is the hammer moveable about the point *C*, *G* the axle of a water wheel, in which axis are the pins *F, E*, &c. As the wheel and axis goes about from *F* towards *E*, the pins *F, E* thrust down the end *B*, and raise the end *A* of the hammer. And when the end *B* goes off the pin; the hammer falls upon the anvil *D*.

EXAMPLE LIII.

238.

I I a crooked axis or elbow for the *suckers of pumps*. *IK* the pestle or chain of the sucker. Upon the axis is the lantern *EF* which is turned by a great wheel, carried either by water, or men, or horses. The pestles *IK* rise and fall alternately, as the lantern

SECT. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

tern *EF* goes about; and each gives one stroke of the pump for one turn of the lantern. Place pullies or rolls at *a, b, c, d*, for the chain *IK* to work against, when it goes out of its perpendicular position; by the obliquity of the motion of the cranks *I, I*.

EXAMPLE LIV.

ABCD a particular combination of *pullies*. *T, T,* 239
T are posts to which the tackles are fixt. *S, S, S*
 are stays to keep them erect. If the power at *A* be
 1, that at *B* is 3; at *C*, 9; and at *D* 27, where
 the weight is placed.

EXAMPLE LV.

240.
A, B are two bellows going by water, and blowing alternately, but neither of them with a continual blast; *W* the water wheel. *DE* the direction of the water. *FG* the axis of the wheel; *a, a*, &c. four cogs of wood in the axis, forcing down the end of the bellows *A*. *b, b*, &c. 4 cogs forcing down the end of the bellows *B*. *LM, NI* two rods of iron, fastened to the bellows and to the leaver *MN*, and moveable about the pins *M, N*. *SP* a piece of timber moveable about *S* and *P*. *OP* a beam serving for a spring, lying over the piece of timber *QR*. As the wheel and axle turns round, a cogg *b* forces down the end of the bellows *B* and makes it blow; this pulls down the end *N* and raises the end *M* of the leaver *MN*, which raises the bellows *A*. And when the cogg *b* goes off; the bellows *B* cease blowing; and a cogg *a* forces down the bellows *A*, and makes it blow; and at the same time raises the bellows *B*. And thus the cogs *a, b* alternately force down the bellows *A, B* and make them blow in their turns. *H* is the hearth or fire.

A pair of bellows may be moved by water thus ;

DESCRIPTION OF

- FIG. *A* is a water wheel carried by the water at *W*. *CD* a rod of iron going on the crooked axle-tree of the wheel; *DF* a leaver moveable about *E*. *FG* a chain going to the bellows *B*. *I* a weight. As the wheel goes about, the ends *D* and *F* of the leaver *DF*, rise and fall; which motion raises the bellows, and the weight *I* carries them down again.

EXAMPLE LVI.

242. *AB* is a wheel with teeth and a *Roller* to draw up any weight. *H, H, H* the handles, which may be wrought by two or three men.
243. But the easiest and simplest rollers for common use
244. are such as *C* and *D*.

EXAMPLE LVII.

245. An engine to *drive piles*. *A* the rammer, drawn up by the rope *BCD* going over the pulley *C*. *DN, DN* several small ropes for several men to pull at. *M* the pile. *EF* a brace and ladder to go up. The rammer *A* is bound at bottom with iron lest it split; and has two tenants on the backside, to keep it in the grooves made in the upright puncheons *G, H*, by which its motion is directed. The rammer is raised to the top by men pulling at the ropes *DN*, and then letting go, all at once, it falls upon the head of the pile *M*.

Old piles are drawn out, by striking gently upon their heads; whilst they are pulled by a strong rope stretched.

EXAMPLE LVIII.

246. *ACL* a pair of *smitb's bellows*. *AL, BL, CL* are three boards, the middle board *BL* divides the internal space into two parts. In the middle board is a valve *S* opening into the upper part; and in the lowest board

board is another valve T opening into the under part. The pipe P communicates only with the upper cavity. DE a leaver moveable about the axis GH . At I a weight is laid upon the upper board to make it fall. The bellows is fixed in the frame MK , by two iron pins which are fast in the middle board. And the pipe P lies upon the hearth. When the end E is pulled down by the rope EF , the end D is raised, and the rope or chain DR raises the lower board CL , this shuts the valve T and opens S , and the air is forced into the upper cavity, which raises the upper board and blows through the pipe P . And when E is raised, the boards A and C descend, and the valve S shuts, and T opens. And the weight I forces the air still out of the pipe, whilst more air enters in at the valve T , which, when C ascends, is forced again through the valve S as before. And thus the bellows have a continual blast.

EXAMPLE LIX.

An engine to raise water. $LMOI$ a great horizontal wheel. ABP the axis, P the pivot or spindle it turns upon. OQI the waves of the great wheel. QR a small wheel perpendicular to the horizon, and placed under the edge of the great wheel, this wheel is moveable about the center C , in the end of the leaver EFC which is moveable about the center D ; EF the arch of a circle, whose plain is perpendicular to the horizon, and in the plain of the wheel QR . EG the chain of a pump.

Whilst the great wheel, is turned by the leaver NA , from O towards I ; the wave Q presses down the wheel QR , and raises the end E , which draws up the water in the pump G . But when the deepest part of the wave is past the wheel QR , the wheel then rises up into the hollow S , and then the chain EG descends, till the next wave raises it again. And thus every wave makes a stroke of the pump.

The

DESCRIPTION OF

- FIG. The wheel QR is placed there only to avoid friction, and so that a perpendicular to its plane may pass through AB . If the number of waves be odd, and another pump wheel and leaver be placed diametrically opposite, on the other side of the great wheel; then these acting by turns will keep the motion uniform, and the power at N will always act equally.

EXAMPLE LX,

248. BFG a *Capstain*, to draw great weights. BC the axis which is driven about by men acting at A , A , by help of the leavers AB , AB . Here must only be 3 or 4 spires of the rope DCE folded about the axis BC ; for the axis could not hold so much rope as there is sometimes occasion for. And to hinder the rope from flipping back, a man constantly pulls at E to keep it tight. And the axis made conical or rather angular at the bottom C ; to keep the rope from going any lower, whilst the capstain goes about.

EXAMPLE LXI.

249. AL is a *Jack* to lift great weights. E is a pinion upon the axis FG , GC a toothed wheel, and D a pinion upon the same axis, working in the teeth of the rack AB . The whole is inclosed in a strong case, KL , all of metal. The handle GHI goes on the axis FG on the backside of the case,

When a weight is to be lifted, the forked end A is put under the weight; then turning the handle HI , the pinion E moves the wheel GC , with the pinion D ; and D raises the rack AB , with the weight.

EXAMPLE LXII,

- 250 An engine to raise and let fall two weights with contrary motions successively, whilst the moving power acts always one way. GH a great horizontal wheel. N ,
 M

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

263

M two lanterns, so placed on the axis *AB*, that the great wheel can only work one of them at once. When the cog wheel *GH* is turned by the leaver *LI*; it turns the lantern *M*, and raises the bucket *E*, whilst *F* descends. Then *E* being raised, moves forward the axis *AB*, that the lantern *M* may leave the wheel, and *N* come to it. Then the great wheel moving the same way as before, will now work upon *N*, and turn the axis the contrary way, and raise the bucket *F* whilst *E* descends. which done, move the axis back towards *A*, and you will again raise the bucket *E*; and so on.

FIG.
250.

This may also be performed by placing the lanterns *M*, *N*, so, that the great wheel may work them both at once; but making them moveable about the axis *AB*. Then there must be a pin to fasten either of them to the axis; so that first one lantern and then the other being thus fixt to the axis, whilst the other is loose; the buckets *E*, *F* will ascend and descend alternately.

EXAMPLE LXIII.

A mill for iron-work. *AB* the slitting mill; *CD* the plate mill. *SP* the clipping mill. *E*, *F* are two great water wheels. After the water is past the wheel *E*, moving in direction *QW*; it comes about to the wheel *F*, in direction *XY*. The water wheel *E* with the lantern *G* on the same axis, carries the spur wheels *M* and *H*, with the cylinders *B* and *D*. And the wheel *F* with the lantern *I* carries the wheels *N* and *K*, with the cylinders *A* and *C*. The cylinders *A* and *B*, as also *C* and *D* run contrary ways about. And the cylinders *A* and *B* are cut into teeth, for slitting iron bars. *C*, *D* are 8 inches diameter; *A* and *B* about 12. And these cylinders may be taken out and others put in, and may be brought nearer to, or farther from one another, by help of screws, which screw up the sockets where the axles run.

251.

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. 251. The axes of *N, I, K* lye all in one horizontal plane, And so do *M, G, H*. But the cylinders *A, B*, and also *C, D*, lye one above another.

For making the plates; if a bar of iron be heated and made thin at the end, and that end put in between the cylinders *C, D* whilst the mill is going; the motion of the cylinders draw it through on the other side, into a thin plate. Likewise a bar of iron, being heated and thinned at the end, and put in between the toothed cylinders *A, B*; it is drawn through on the other side and slit into several pieces, or strings. And then if there be occasion, any of these strings may be put through the plate mill with the same heat, and made into plates.

OPQ is the sheers for clipping bars of cold iron into lengths. *V* a cog in the axis of the water wheel, *OP* one side of the sheers made of steel and moveable about *P*. The plane *LPR* is perpendicular to the horizon. When the mill goes about, the cog *V* raises the side *OP*, which as it rises clips the bar *TQ* into two, by the edges *SP, RP*. All the engine, except the water wheels *E, F* is within the house.

EXAMPLE LXIV.

252. *AFC* a Windmill to frighten birds from corn or fruit. This is made of wood. The sails *F, F* a foot long, and their planes inclined to the axis *BC*, 45 or 50 degrees. The piece *B* goes upon the end of the axis *BC*, and is pinned fast on, and the sails and axis turn round together; and the axis goes through the board *AD*; and is kept from flying out of the hole, by the piece *B* pinned fast. The whole machine is moveable about the perpendicular staff *AG*, by which means the wind turns the mill about the axis *AG*, till the plane *AD* lies directly from the wind; and then the sails face it. At *S* is a spring to knock as it goes about; and the like on the other side.

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE LXV.

 FIG.
253.

An *Anemoscope*, to shew the turnings of the wind. *CD* is a weather cock of thin metal, fixt fast to the long perpendicular axis *DF*, which turns with the least wind upon the foot *F*, and goes through the top of the house *RS*. To this axis is fixt the pinion *A*, which works in the crown wheel *B*, of an equal number of teeth. The crown wheel is fixt on the axis *PI*, on the end of which the index *NS* is fixed. The axis *PI* goes through the wall *LM*, against the wall is placed the circle *NESW*, with the points of the compass round it. Then if the vane *CD* be set to the north, and at the same time the index *SN* fixt on the axis *PI*, to point at *S*. Then however the wind varies, it will turn the vane *CD*, and pinion *A*, and *A* turns the wheel *B* with the index *N*; so that the index will always be directed to the opposite point of the compass to the vane *DC*; or to the same as the wind is in.

EXAMPLE LXVI.

DEF is a *rag-pump*, or chain pump. *EF* the barrel. *CD* the roller. *GH* an endless chain, to which are fixed several leather buckets *I, I*, hollow on the upper side that ascends. *AB* the handle. The use of this is to cleanse foul waters from dirt and rubbish. The roller is ribbed to hinder the chain from slipping, in working. When the roller is turned, it draws up the chain through the pump, with whatever is in the water, and discharges it at the top. 254.

EXAMPLE LXVII.

A *Dyer's and Fuller's mill*. *A* the great wheel carried about by horses. This turns the trundles *B, C, D,* 255.

- FIG. 255. *D*; together with *E, F, G*. Then *E* turns the cog wheel *H*, with the axis *IK*, and the cross pieces *L, L*. *1, 1* &c. are pulleys or rollers. *MN, MN* wooden beaters turning upon an axis passing through *N, N*. Whilst the axis *IK* turns about, the end *b* slides along the pulley *1*, and falling off, the part *M* strikes against the cloth in the trough at *O, O*. The lantern *F* carries the cog wheel *P*, and the cranks *Q, Q*; which work the pumps *T, T* by help of the levers *RS*, moveable about *a*. The trundle *G* carries the cog wheels *V* and *W*, and *W* carries the trundle *X*, with the piston *Y* that grinds the indigo in the vessel *cd*; from whence it flows to the vessel *Z*. The ends *m, m*. &c. of all the axles run in pieces of timber going cross the mill, and fastened to one another, and to the walls of the house.

EXAMPLE LXVIII.

256. A machine to empty standing water. This is no more than a large pipe or cyphon *ABC*, being extremely close and tight that no air can get in.

If the pool of water *DE* is to be emptied over the hill *DHG*; let the pipe be placed with its mouth *A* within the water *DE*, and the mouth *C* within the water *FG*, if the pipe be very large. Then stop up *A* and *C*, and fill the pipe with water by the cock *B* at the top. Then stopping the cock *B* very close, open *A* and *C*; and the water will flow through the pipe, from *DE* into *FG*, which may run over at *F*, at a small height above *C*, and go away.

Note, the end *C* must always be lower than *A*, and the height of the top *B* above *DE* must not exceed 11 yards; for it do, the water will not flow. If the pipe be very strait, the end *C* need not be immersed in the water; but if large it must; or else the air will insinuate itself into the pipe at *C*, and hinder the flux of the water.

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE LXIX.

FIG.

257.

EFGH is a *Coal Gin*. *E* the cog-wheel 11 feet diameter, and 72 cogs; this carries the trundle *F*, near 2 feet diameter, and 12 rounds, together with the roll *G*, 4 feet diameter. *AH* is the start 20 feet long. The axis *AB* runs upon the kevystock *C*. There are two cross trees *IK*, at the top, thro' which the axis *AB* goes. These cross trees are supported by four posts *KL* at the four corners. When the coals are to be drawn up out of the pit, two horses are yoked at *H* and go round in the path *OQD*, and draw the wheel about. And whilst the loaded corf *N*, is drawn up to the top of the shaft *M*, by the rope going round the roll; the empty one at the other end of the rope is descending to the bottom. And the loaded corf *N* being taken off and an empty one put on; the horses are turned, and made to draw the contrary way about; till the other corf comes to the top loaded: And so as one corf ascends, the other descends, alternately. A corf of coals weighs about 5 hundred weight, and contains about $4\frac{1}{2}$ bushels. A pit is 40 or 50 fathom deep. And 50 fathom of the rope weighs about 3 hundred weight.

EXAMPLE LXX.

A *worm jack* for turning aspit. *ABC* the barrel round which the cord *QR* is wound. *KL* the main wheel of 60 teeth. *N* the worm wheel of about 30 teeth cut obliquely. *LM* the pinion of 15 or 16. *O* the worm or endless screw, on which are two threads going round and making an angle with the axis of 60 or 75 degrees. *X* the stud, *Z* the loop of the worm spindle. *P* a heavy wheel or fly to make the motion uniform. *DG* the struck wheel fixt to the axis *FD*. *S*, *S* several holes in the frame, to nail it to a board, which is to be nailed against a wall; the
end

258.

FIG. end *D* going through it. *HI* the handle going upon the axis *ET*, to wind up the weight when down. *R* are fixed pulleys, *V* moveable pullies with the weight. The axis *ET* is fixt in the barrel *AC*, and this axis being hollow, both it and the barrel turn round upon the axis *FD*, which is fixt to the wheel *KL*, turning in the order *BT A*; but cannot turn the contrary way by reason of a catch nailed to the end *AB*, which lays hold of the cross bars in the wheel *LK*.

The weight, by means of the cord *QR*, carries about the barrel *AB*, which by means of the catch, carries the wheel *KL*, which carries the nut *LM* and wheel *N*, which carries the worm *O* with the fly *P*. Also the wheel *LM* carries the axis *FD* with the wheel *DG*, which carries the cord or chain, that goes about the spit head (a wheel like *DG*) which turns the spit. The more pullies at *R* and *V*, the longer the jack will go; but then the weight must be greater.

The catch lies between the end *AB* of the barrel and the wheel *KL*, and is thus described. *ff* the barrel, *n* the main spindle, *dr* a tumbler moving easy on the center pin *a*, fastened to an iron plate, nailed to the barrel. *b* a collar of iron turning a little stiff on the spindle; from this proceeds the tongue *bc*, passing through the hole *c* in the tumbler, *r* the catch of the tumbler. Now whilst the barrel with the catch is turned about in the order *efg*, upon the axis *n*; the collar is drawn about by the tongue *bc*, which tongue acting backwards turns the tumbler about the center *a*, and depresses the catch *r*. But the barrel being turned the contrary way, the tongue then acts towards *d*; this depresses the end *d*. and raises the catch *r*, which then takes the cross bars of the main wheel, and stops the barrel. This catch would also serve for a clock, and is better than a spring catch, because it makes no noise in winding up.

Note, the jack need not be placed so, that the axis *FD* be parallel to the spit; but any way it can

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

can conveniently. For it is no matter whether the chain crosses or not.

269

FIG.

EXAMPLE LXXI.

DAF the *hydrostatical bellows*. *AB*, *EF* two flat boards of oak, the sides *AE*, *BF* of leather joined very close to the top and bottom, with strong nails. *CD* a pipe screwed into the piece of brass in the top at *C*. If a man blows in at the pipe *DC*, he will raise a great weight laid upon the board *AB*, or if he stands upon the board *AB*, he may easily blow himself up, by blowing strongly into the pipe *DC*. If water be poured in at *D*, till the bellows and pipe be full; the pressure upon *AB* within, will lift as much weight upon the top *AB*, as is equal to a cylinder of water, whose base is *AB* and height *CD*.

259.

EXAMPLE LXXII.

ADM is a *water-mill* for grinding corn. *A* the water wheel 16 feet diameter, *BC* its axis. *D* the cog wheel, with 48 cogs. *O* a trundle, with 9 rounds. *LI* its axis. *MN* the stones, 6 or 7 feet diameter. The lower stone *N* is fixt immoveable upon beams of wood; and the upper stone is fixt to the spindle *LI*, by a piece of iron called the rind, fixt in the lower side of the stone, to go square upon the spindle; between which and the stone there is room left for the corn to fall through upon the lower stone. The spindle goes through the lower stone and is made so tight with a wooden bush, as to turn round in it easily. The upper stone and the spindle *LI* is supported with the end *I* upon a horizontal beam of wood *FE* called the bridge, the end *F* being fixed, and the end *E* lying upon the beam *HG* fixt at *G*, called the brayer. The end *H* is supported by the lifting tree *HK*, by help of a wedge at *K*. By this means the

260.

upper

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. 260. upper stone may be raised or lowered. For if KH be raised with the leaver Kk ; the end E , the axis Ll with the stone M , and the piece GH are all raised; and may be fixed there by the wedge K . Thus the stones may be set as near or far off, as you will. The lower stone is broader than the upper one, and is inclosed with the boards all around as ab , close to the lower stone, and above the edge of the under one, to keep the meal in. And through one side of the boards is a hole called the mill-eye, through which the meal runs out into a trough.

The surfaces of the millstones are not flat but conical; the upper one an inch hollow, the under one swells up $\frac{3}{4}$ of an inch. So the two stones are wider nearer the center, and come nearer and nearer, towards the circumference; which gives room to the corn to go in as far as $\frac{2}{3}$ of the radius, where it begins to be ground. The upper stone has a dancing motion up and down, by the springing of the bridge, which helps to grind the corn. The flower as soon as made, is thrown to the outside by the circulation of the stone and the air, and riven out at the mill eye. The quantity of flower ground is nearly as the velocity and weight of the stone. The stone ought not to go round above once in a second.

The corn is put into the hopper S , which falling down into the shoe TV runs into the hole at top of the stone M . And the axis LM may be taken off and is made with 6 or 8 angles, which as it turns about, shakes the end V of the shoe, and keeps the corn always running down. PQ is the direction of the water, which acting against the floats R , carries about the wheel A and cog wheel D , which cog wheel carries the lantern or trundle O , and the upper stone M that grinds the corn. This is called an undershot mill where the water comes underneath. But if the water comes over the top of the wheel at A , it is called an overfall or overshot mill. This requires less water than an undershot mill; but there is not convenience in all places to make them. A

SECT. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

271

A breast mill is that where the water is delivered into boxes, at about the height of the axis of the wheel, and moves the wheel by its weight. This requires more water than either of the other sorts.

FIG.
260.

The diameter of the wheel *A* must not be too large, for then it will move too slow; nor too little, for then it will want power. When a mill is in perfection, the velocity of the floats, wings, or hands *R* upon the water wheel, must be $\frac{1}{3}$ the velocity of the water. A wheel for an overfall mill is in form of fig. 282. Sometimes one water wheel *A* carries two pair of stones, and then two cog wheels *D* are put upon the axis *BC*, which carry two trundles with the stones. Otherwise the cog wheel *D* carries a trundle *O* and spur wheel, which spur wheel carries two lanterns with the stones, one lantern on each side the wheel. Or sometimes, the same cog-wheel *D* carries another lantern and cogwheel whose axis is parallel to the horizon; and this cogwheel carries another lantern with the stones. In these cases when one pair of stones is to stand still; there is either a loose round to be taken out of its lantern; or else the bridge *EF* is shifted towards *H*, till the lantern *O* be clear of the teeth of *D*. A good overfall mill will grind $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 bushels of corn in an hour; and requires 100 hoghead of water for an hour, having 10 or 12 feet fall.

282.
260.

The higher fall the water has, the less of it will serve to carry the mill. It is brought to the wheel by a narrow channel called the mill race, in an undershot-mill: or by a trough in an overfall mill. The water is kept up in the mill-dam, and let out by the penstock, when the mill is to go. The penstock is raised or let down by help of a leaver. The penstock being raised, opens a passage to the water 10 or 12 inches wide, through which it flows to the wheel. And when the mill is to stop, the penstock is let down, and the orifice stopt.

EXAMPLE

DESCRIPTION OF

EXAMPLE LXXIII.

AB is a *Trap* to catch vermin in, made of boards. *GH* a piece of wood suspended over the bar *IL*, by the leaver *DE* moveable about *D*, and the thread *FE* tied to the start *CK*. *lmB* a piece of flat wood moveable about *lm*, and lying on the bottom, whose end *B* comes through a hole in the side, in which is a catch to take hold of the end *K* of the start, when the trap is set. When the vermin go into the trap, they tread upon the board *lmB*, on which a bait is laid, which puts down the end *B*; and the start *CK* flies up. This gives liberty to the small leaver *DE* to rise up; then the piece of wood *GH* falls down and knocks them on the head. If two pieces of board were nailed on the ends *G*, *H*; to reach below the piece of wood *GH*; the trap would take the vermin alive.

262. *ABE* is another *Trap*, the end *B* is wire; and the end *A* slides up and down in two grooves in the sides. When the trap is set, the end *A* is suspended by the thread *CD* tied to the leaver *DI* moveable about *O*, the end *I* being held by the crooked end of the wire *JS*, moveable about *R*, the end *RS* going within the trap. A bait is put on the end at *S*, and the end *E* of the trap being open, the vermin goes in and pulls at the bait *S*, this pulls the catch *I* from off the end of the leaver *ID*, which lets the end *A* fall down, and the vermin is taken.

EXAMPLE LXXIV.

263. An engine for moving several *saws* for the sawing of stones, &c. *ILLI* is a square frame, perpendicular to the horizon, moving in direction *LL*, in gutters made in the fixt beams *AM*, *CB*; and running upon little wheels. *IL* two rods of iron fixt at *I* and *L*. *OP* two hands of iron running along these rods; to these are

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

273

are fixt the saws *S, S*. *HIK* is a triangle fixt to the axis of a great wheel. As the wheel and triangle go about from *H* towards *I*, the point *I* acting against the piece *G*, moves the frame towards *MB*, together with the saws *S, S*. When *I* is gone off, the angle *K* acts against the piece *F*, and moves the frame back again. Then *H* acting against *G*, moves it forward; and so the saws are moved back and forward, as long as the wheel turns round. As these saws work by the motion of the engine, the hands *OP* descend. The parts *F* and *G* ought to be made curve; and little wheels may be applied at the points of the triangle *HIK*, to take away the friction against *F* and *G*. The axle of the wheel may be made to carry more triangles, and work more saws, if the power is strong enough.

FIG.
263.

Instead of the triangle *HIK*, the frame may be moved by the two pieces *ab, cd*; going thro' the axis, across to one another. So that *ab* may only act on *F*, and *cd* on *G*. *F* being only in the plane of *ab*'s motion; and *G* in that of *cd*. So that *F* never falls in the way of *cd*, nor *G* in the way of *ab*.

EXAMPLE LXXV.

A is an *Eolipile*. This is a hollow globe of brass with only a very small hole at the mouth. Take it by the handle *B* and set it on a fire till tis heated, then plunge it in cold water, and the air in it which was rarefied, will be condensed, and water will go into it, till it be about half full. Then if it be set on the fire, the water will turn into vapour by the heat, and will blow out at the mouth with great violence; and continue so till the water is spent.

264.

EXAMPLE LXXVI.

ABD is a *Hygroscope*, *BC* is an index hung by the (therm) string *AB*, the point *B* hanging over the center of a circle, which is divided into equal parts.

265.

T

The

DESCRIPTION OF

- FIG. The string *AB* twists and untwists by the moisture
 265. or dryness of the air. By this means the index *BC* turns about, and shews the degrees of drought or moisture, on the circumference *DC*.

EXAMPLE LXXVII.

266. A *Windmill*. *AHO* the upper room. *HOZ* the under one. *AB* the axle-tree, going quite through the mill. *STVW* the sails covered with canvass, set obliquely to the wind, and going about in the order *STVW*. *CD* the cogwheel of about 48 cogs *a, a, a*; which carries the lantern *EF*, of 8 or 9 rounds, *c, c*; and its axis *GN*. *IK* the upper stone; *LM* the lower stone. *QR* the bridge, supporting the axis or spindle *GN*. The bridge is supported by the beams *cd, XY*, wedged up at *c, d*, and *X*. *ZY* the lifting tree standing upright. *ab, cf*, leavers whose centers of motion are *Z, u*. *fgbi* a cord with a stone *i*, for a ballance, going about the pins *g, b*. The spindle *GN* is fixt to the upperstone *IK*, by a piece of iron, called the rind, fixt in the underside of the stone. The upper stone only turns about, and its whole weight rests upon the bridge *QR*, and turns upon a hard stone fixed at *N*. The trundle *EF* and axis *Gt* may be taken away; for it fixes on the lower part at *t*, by a square socket, and the top runs in the edge of the beam *w*. Putting down the end *f* of the leaver *fe*, raises *b*, which raises *ZY*, which raises *YX*, and this raises the bridge *QR*, with the axis *NG*, and the upper stone *IK*; and thus the stones are set at any distance. The lower stone is fixt immoveable upon strong beams, is broader than the upper, upon which boards are placed round the upper at a small distance to confine the flower from flying away; and the flower is conveyed through the tunnel *no* down into a chest. *P* is the hopper into which the corn is put, which runs along the spout *r* into the hole *t*, and so falls between the stones where it is ground. The axis *Gt* is square, which shaking
 4 the

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

the spout r as it goes about, makes the corn run out. rs a string going about the pin s , which being turned about moves the spout nearer or further from the axis, and so makes the corn run in faster or slower; according to the wind. And when the wind is great, the sails S, T, V, W are only part of them, or one side of them, covered; or perhaps only a half of two opposite sails T, W are covered. Towards the end B of the axle-tree is placed another cogwheel, trundle, and stones with exactly the same apparatus as before. And the axle carries two pair of stones, at once. And when only one pair is to grind, the trundle EF and axis Gt is taken out from the other. xy is a girth of pliable wood, fixed at the end x ; and the other end y tied to the leaver km moveable about k . And the end m being put down, draws the girth xy , close to the cogwheel, and by this means the motion of the mill is stopt at pleasure. pq is a ladder going into the higher part of the mill. The corn is drawn to the top, by means of a rope going about the axis AB , when the mill is going.

In mills built of wood, the whole body of the mill turns round to the wind, on a tampin or perpendicular post. But in those of stone, only the upper part turns. 1. Is the mill house, which is turned about to the wind by a man, by help of the leaver or beam 2. 3 Is a roller to hoist up the steps 4.

Concerning the position and force of the sails, see Ex. 21. before.

EXAMPLE LXXVIII.

AB a force pump. C the piston fixt to the rod EC , moveable about E . DF the handle moveable about D . a, d two clacks or valves opening upwards. The piston C must move freely up and down in the barrel and exactly fill it, that no air get in. It is made close by circular pieces of leather cut to fit the barrel, and screwed close between pieces of brass. This pump

T 2

acts

275
FIG.
266.

267.

FIG. 267. acts by pressing down. For when the handle *F* is raised, it raises the piston *EC*, and the water rises from *H*, opens the valve *d*, and goes into the barrel, at the same time the valve *a* shuts. But when *F* is put down, the piston *C* pressing upon the water shuts the valve *d*, and opens *a*, and forces the water that has been raised, through the pipe *BG*.

268. *LM* is another force pump, or a lifting pump. *N* the bucket. *a*, *b*, *c* valves opening upward. This pump is close at the top *S*, and the small rod of iron plays through a hole made tight with leather. This pump acts by forcing upwards, for when the handle *P* is put down, it lifts up the bucket *N*, the pressure shuts the valve *b*, opens *c*, and forces the water in the barrel *NS* along the pipe *QR*. At the same time the valve *a* opens and lets in more water, from *M* into the barrel. And when *P* is raised, *N* descends, the valves *a*, *c* shut and *b* opens, and lets more water pass through the bucket *N* into the upper part. And when the bucket *N* is drawn up again, the water is forced along the pipe *QR* as before. This pump is the same as a lifting pump, only there is added the valve *c* which is not absolutely necessary. No hole or leak must be suffered below the piston or bucket; for air will get in, and spoil the working of the pump. And the buckets must always be within 30 feet of the water.

There are several sorts of valves used in pump work. as *T*, *V*, *W*, that at *T* being made of two pieces of flat leather is called a clack. These at *V*, *W* are made conical or of any indented figure, and fit exactly into a hole of the same shape. At the bottom of the valve is put a pin across it, to hinder its flying quite out of the hole.

EXAMPLE LXXIX.

FIG.

269.

AB a *Hydrometer*, to measure the densities of liquors, especially spirituous liquors. This is a hollow ball of glass *B*, partly filled with quicksilver or shot; and hermetically sealed at the top *A*, when made of a due weight, by trials. The small tube *AB* is divided into equal parts, and graduated at equal distances. And these divisions noted to which it sinks in different fluids of the best sorts; which points must be taken as standards to compare others with. Then if the *Hydrometer* be immersed in any fluid, and the point to which it sinks in the surface be marked; it shews the density of it, and its goodness. For it sinks deepest in the lightest liquor: And the lightest liquids are the best.

EXAMPLE LXXX.

AB is a *Thermometer*, to measure the degrees of 270. heat. *B* is a glass ball with a long neck *AB*. The ball and part of the neck is filled with spirit of wine tinged red with cochineal; and the end *A* is sealed hermetically; In the doing of which the end of the tube *A*, the spirit and included air, are heated, which rarefies the air and spirit; so that when the end *A* is sealed, and the tube cools; the spirit contracts, and there is a vacuum made in the top of the tube. And therefore the spirit expanding and contracting by heat and cold, has liberty to rise and fall in the tube. This ball and tube is inclosed in a frame, which is divided into degrees. Then as the top of the spirit rises or falls, the divisions will shew the degrees of heat or cold. These divisions are arbitrary, and therefore two thermometers will not go together, or shew the same degrees of heat and cold; except they be made to do so by graduating them

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. them both by observation. This is commonly put in the same case with the barometer, fig. 218.

270.

There are other sorts of Thermometers. *CD* is a ball with a long neck open at the end *D*, partly filled with tinged spirit of wine, and put with the open end into the vessel *D*, near the bottom; which vessel is half full or more of the same spirit. The top of the tube *CE* is air. So in warm weather when the air in *C* is rarefied by heat, it presses the spirit down into the bucket *D*, and as the point *E* descends, the divisions being marked, shew the degrees of heat; or when it ascends, the degrees of cold. But this sort is affected with the pressure of the atmosphere, and therefore is not so true.

EXAMPLE LXXXI.

271.

DA is an artificial fountain. *AE* a strong close vessel of metal, *AB* a pipe reaching near the bottom of the vessel, and soldered close at *A*. *F, A* two cocks. If the cocks be opened and water poured in at *A*, till the vessel be about half full. Then stop the cock *F*, and with a syringe inject the air at *A*, till it be sufficiently condensed within the vessel. Then stop the cock at *A*, and take away the syringe. Then as soon as you open the cock at *A*, the compression of the air at *C*, will force the water up the tube *BA*, and spout up to the height *D*. And a little ball of cork may be kept suspended at the top of the stream *D*.

But an artificial fountain is most easily made thus, take a strong bottle *G*; and fill it half full of water, cork it well, and through the cork put a tube *HI* very close, to reach near the bottom of the vessel. Then blow strongly in at *H*, till the air in the bottle be condensed; then the water will spout out at *H* to a great height.

Any of these fountains placed in the sunshine, will shew all the colours of the rainbow; a black cloth being placed behind.

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE LXXXII.

FIG.

272.

CD is Archimedes's *Water-screw*. This is a cylinder turning upon the axis *CD*. About this cylinder there is twisted a pipe or rather several pipes *no*, *pq*, running spiral ways from end to end. This cylinder is placed higher at one end *D*, than at the other. And its use is to screw up the water from the lower end to the higher. *AB* is a river running in direction *AB*. *a*, *b*, *c*, *d* several floats fixt to the cylinder. *EF* the surface of the water. Since the cylinder stands in an inclined position, the upper floats *a*, *b* are set out of the water; and the under ones *c*, *d* within it. So that the water acts only upon the under ones, *c*, *d*; and turns about the cylinder in the order *abcd*. By this motion the water taken into the spiral tubes at the low end, is by the revolution of the cylinder, conveyed thro' these pipes, and discharged at the top into the vessel *G*. If *AB* is a standing water, there is no occasion for the floats *a*, *b*, *c*, *d*. And then the cylinder is to be turned by the handle at *D*. Instead of the pipe, a spiral channel may be cut round the cylinder, and covered close with plates of lead. The closer these spiral tubes are, the more water is raised; but it requires more force. Also the more the cylinder leans, the more water it carries, but to a less height.

EXAMPLE LXXXIII.

AL a *Rowling-press*, for copper-plate printing. *DE*, *FG*, two wooden rollers, of about 12 or 16 inches diameter, running upon the ends of two strong iron axels; that go quite through them, and are fixt in them. To the axis of the upper one *DE* is fixed the handle *BAC*. These rollers run in brass sockets, and must run very true upon their axles, and may be brought nearer; or set further from one another; by

T 4

wedges

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. 273. wedges in the frame at *P*, *R*. *HIK* is a flat table or plank going in between the rollers, and sliding freely upon the frame. *LM* the frame. *NO* a shelf to lie the paper upon. When the press is used, the upper roller is folded round with flannel, that every part of the print may take an equal impression; and a paper bottom, spread upon the table *HIK*, where the plate is to lye, to prevent the indenting of the plank.

Then rubbing the plate with the sort of ink proper for it, and laying it upon the paper bottom, on the table at *H*. Take the printing paper and laying it carefully upon the plate, and turning the handle *CAB*, the motion of the roller *DE*, turns the roller *FG*, and draws the table through between the rollers, together with the plate and paper; and the paper is printed.

Note, the paper must be thoroughly wetted in a trough; and after it has laid about a day or two, it is then to be passed through a screw press, to squeeze the water out, and then it is fit for printing.

EXAMPLE LXXXIV.

274. The *Fire-Engine* to raise water. *LL* is a great beam or leaver about 24 feet long, two feet deep at least, and near 2 feet broad; it lies through the end-wall *W* of the engine house, and moves round the center *a*, upon an iron axis. *CC* a hollow cylinder of iron 40 inches diameter and 8 or 9 feet long. *P* the piston sustained by the chain *LP*. *F* the fire place under ground. *BB* the boiler 12 feet diameter, which communicates with the cylinder by the hole 2, and steam pipe *E*, 6 or 8 inches diameter. The boiler is of iron, and covered over close with lead. In this the water is boiled to raise a steam. 4, 5 is the regulator, being a plate within the boiler, which opens and shuts the hole of communication 2. This is fixt on the axis 34 coming through the boiler, on which axis is fixt the horizontal piece *b3*; so that moving *b* back and forward, moves the plate 4 5 over hole 2 and back again. *bl* is a horizontal rod of iron, moveable

SECT. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

281

FIG.
274.

moveable about the joint *b*. *xyedl* a piece of iron with several claws called the Wye, moving about the axis *de* in a fixt frame. The claw *sl* is cloven at *l*, and between them passes the end of *bl*, with two knobs to keep it in its place. *AA* is the working beam, in which is a slit, through which the claws *xy* pass, and are kept there by the pin *q* going between them. *DDD* is a leaden pipe called the injection pipe, carrying cold water from the cistern *S* into the cylinder *CC*; and is turn'd up with a cap full of holes at the end, within the cylinder. *f* the injection cock, to which is fixt the iron rod *fg*, lying horizontal. The end *g* goes through a slit in the end of the piece *rg*, and at the end is a knob screw'd on to keep it in. *pcbrg* a piece of iron with several claws called the Eff, moveable about the axis *bc*. The claw *rp* goes through the slit in the beam *AA*, and is kept there by the two pins *o*, *n*: The claw *rg* goes over the piece *gf*. As the piece *gf* is moved back and forward, the injection cock *f* opens and shuts. *i, i, &c.* are several holes in the beam *AA*, that by shifting the pins, set the pieces *p*, *x*, *y* higher or lower, as occasion requires. *N* is a sniffing clack, ballanced by a weight, and opening outwards, to let out the air in the cylinder at the descent of the piston. in some engines a pipe goes from it to convey the steam out of the house. (*G* is a leaden pipe) called the sinking pipe or eduction pipe, going from the cylinder to the hot well *H*. it is turn'd up at the end, and has a valve opening upwards; this carries away the water thrown in by the cold water pipe. *t* is the feeding pipe going from the hot well to the boiler to supply it with water, by a cock opening at pleasure. *i, i* are two guage pipes with cocks, one reaching a little under the surface of the water in the boiler, the other a little above it. By opening these cocks, it is known when there is water enough in the boiler; for one cock will give steam and the other water. They stand in a plate which may be opened, for a man to go into the boiler

to

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. 274. to clean or mend it. *m* is the puppet clack, from this a wice comes through a small hole, to which is fixed a thread going over a pulley, with a small weight at it; the weight on the clack *m* is about a pound for every square inch. *YZ* the steam pipe going from the clack out of the house. When the steam in the boiler is too strong, it lifts up the puppet clack *m*, and goes into the steam pipe *YZ*, by which it is conveyed away: Otherwise the boiler would burst. *KK* a pipe carrying water from the cistern *S* into the cylinder, to cover the piston to a good depth. *I* a cock opening to any wideness, that the water may run in a due quantity. *M* a hole to let it out, thro' a pipe, into the hot well *H*, when too much. *VVV* a force pump with a bucket and clack, and two valves opening upwards. This pump is close at the top *R*, and being wrought by the leaver *LL*, it brings water out of a pit into the cistern *S*. *Q* the pit where the water is to be raised. *XX* the speers which work in wooden pumps within the pit. The cylinder is supported by strong beams as 7, 8, going through the engine house. 6, 6 is the first floor. 7, 7 the upper floor. At *O* in the end of the beam *CL* there are two pins, which strike against two springs of wood, fixt to two timbers lying on each side the great leaver *LL*; these pins serve to stop the beam, and hinder the piston coming too low in the cylinder. When the engine is to be set to work, the water in the boiler must be made to boil so long, till the steam is strong enough; which is known by opening the valves *i, i*. Then the hole 2 is opened by moving the piece *b 3* by hand. Then the steam is let into the cylinder, which lets the end of the beam *LC* rise up. This raises the working beam *AA*, moves the Eff, *prg*, which moves *gf*, and opens the cold water cock *f*. At the same time moves the wye *xyl*, which draws *lb*, and shuts the hole 2. The cock *f* being open, the cold water rushing into the cylinder, is thrown up against the piston, and descending in small drops

SECT. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES

283

drops, condenses the hot rarified stream, and makes a vacuum under the piston. Consequently the weight of the atmosphere pressing upon the piston, brings down the end *LC*, which raises the other end *LQ*, which works the pumps *XX*. As the end *LC* descends, the working plug *AA* descends, and moving the eff *prgf*, and wye *xys/b*, shuts the cold water cock *f*, and opens the hole 2, and the steam goes into the cylinder, which takes off the pressure of the atmosphere; and the end *LQ* descends by the weight of the speers *XX*. And the end *LC* ascends as before, which opens *f* and shuts 2. So by the motion of the beam *AA* up and down, the cock *f* and hole 2 shut and open alternately. And by this means of condensing and rarefying the steam alternately within the cylinder, the leaver or beam *LL* constantly moves up and down. By which motion the water is drawn up by the pumps; and delivered into troughs within the pit, and conveyed away by drifts or levels. At the same time the motion of the beam *LL* works the pump *VRV*, and raises water into the cistern *S*. When the engine is to cease working, the pins *n*, *o* are taken out, and the cold water cock is kept close shut; whilst the end *LC* is up.

FIG.
274.

There is never made a perfect vacuum in the cylinder, for as soon as the elastic force of the steam within, is diminished, the piston begins to descend. The vacuum is such that about 8 lb. presses upon every square inch of the piston. The diameter of the pumps within the pit, is about 8 or 9 inches. And the bores of these pumps, where the speers *XX* work, should be made wide at the top; for if they be strait, more time is required to make a stroke, and the barrels are in danger of bursting. And the engine will make 13 or 14 strokes in a minute, makes a 6 foot stroke, and delivers 300 or more hogsheads of water, in an hour, to the height of 60 or 70 fathom. A cubic inch of water in this engine will make 13338 cubic

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. bic inches of steam. She consumes about 30 bushels of coals in 12 hours.

EXAMPLE LXXXV.

275.

AB is the *Water-Engine* to quench fire. *D*, *E* are two pumps 5 inches diameter, having each a clack *a*, *b* opening upwards. *CO* a large copper air vessel 9 inches diameter. This vessel stands upon a strong plate *kw*, 5 or 6 inches above the bottom of the chest *NM*. *SY* is a brass pipe coming through the end of the chest at *S*; and at *Y* it divides into two cavities going under the copper pot *CO*, to the two pumps *E*, *D*. The cavity *YW* leads to the pump *E*. And directly above this cavity at *W*, there is another cavity *y*, communicating with the pump *E*. And above the cavity *y* is placed the valve *r*, opening upwards into the copper pot *CO*, from this cavity. There are the like cavities belonging to the pump *D*; the first going to the valve *a*; the other from the pump to the valve *s* of the copper pot. These cavities are made of hollow pieces of brass screwed fast together. *Z* is a cock, through which is a passage along the pipe *SY*, another at the side of the pipe into the chest *NM*. This cock by turning the handle *cc* opens one passage and shuts the other, as there is occasion. *Xx* a leather pipe to be screwed on the end *S*, to draw water out of a well or river.

PR is the conduit pipe reaching near the bottom of the vessel *CO*, and soldered close into the top of it. At *R* and *Q* are screws, so that the pipe may be turned in any direction, by the man that holds it. And at *V* a copper pipe must be screwed on, or else a long leather one, which being flexible is carried into rooms and entries. *HI* an iron axis to which the iron leavers *FG*, *LK* are fixed. This axis moves in sockets about *H*, *I*, which are screwed hard down. *FK*, *GL* two wooden handles fixt to the leavers to work them by. *gb*, *pl* are two arches of iron fixt on the axis *HI*. *fd*,
mn

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

285

FIG.
275.

mn the shanks of the pistons, being two strong rods of iron. *fg*, *bt*, *lq*, *mp*, four iron chains fixt at *f*, *g*; and *b*, *t*; and *l*, *q*; and at *m*, *p*. At *f* and *m* are screws to screw the chains tight; these chains work the pumps. For when *FK* is put down, the chain *fg* pulls down the rod of the piston *fd*. And when *FK* is raised, the chain *tb* pulls it up again. And the same way the chains *lq*, *mp* raise and depress the piston *mn*. In some engines there are two arches, like *bg*, *tp*, fixt near the end *I* of the axis; and chains at them; from the ends of which, as also from *t* and *q* two boards are suspended. These boards serve for treadles for men to stand upon, to help to work the engine.

The vessel *CO* and two pumps are inclosed in a chest *AN*, and the whole machine moveable on wheels, the fore axle-tree turning on a bolt in the middle, for the conveniency of turning to either side. But there are a great many forms of these engines. In some the leaver lies cross over; in others lengthways; in some there is no chain work, but only pins for the pistons to move upon.

When the engine is to play, if it is by the water in a river, &c. the pipe *Xx* must be screwed on at *S*, and the end *x* put into the water. But if water is to be fetched, it must be poured into the chest *M*, which runs through the holes *T* into the body of the engine *N*. Then turning the cock *ceZ* to open the proper communication; the handles *FK*, *GL*, must be moved up and down by men; by which means water is drawn into the pumps *E*, *D*, and forced into the vessel *CO*, and out of the pipe *PR*. For the piston *mn* being raised, the water is drawn along the cavity *ZYW*, through the valve *b* into the pump *E*; and when *mn* is depressed, the valve *b* shuts and the water is forced into the cavity *y*, through the valve *r*, and into the pot *CO*; which cannot return for the shutting of the valve *r*, when the piston *mn* rises again. And the like for the other pump *D*. Since the piston of one pump goes down whilst the other goes

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. goes up, the water is forced into the vessel *CO*, by turns, by these pumps; so that there is always water going in. And the air confined at top of the vessel at *C* being condensed, will press the water up the pipe *PRQV*, and make it flow with a continual stream. If the water in *C* be compressed into half the space, it will force the water to 30 feet high.

In some engines, there is another pipe as *PR*, coming through the copper pot, and thro' the side of the engine, and these two pipes may play both at once if there is occasion. And if not, the end of one is screwed up.

EXAMPLE LXXXVI.

276. *A Ship.* This is the noblest machine that ever was invented. It is so compounded and consists of so many parts, that it would require a whole volume to describe it. Some of the principal parts are these.

- A* the Hull.
- B* the Bow.
- C* the Fore-Castle.
- D* the main deck.
- E* the Stern.
- F* the ancient staff and ensign.
- G* the Poop lantern.
- H* the rudder.
- I* the bowsprit.
- K* the foremast.
- L* the mainmast.
- M* the mizen mast.
- N* top masts.
- O* top gallant masts.
- P* Sails.
- Q* Yards.
- R* Vanes.
- S* the Jack.
- T* the Pendant.

V Stays

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

285

210.
276.

V Stays.

Vv Main-stay, &c.

W Shrowds.

X Main topmast back stay, &c.

Y The Crane line.

Z The anchor, to which the cable is fixt.

1 Main lifts.

2 Fore braces.

3 Main-top-sail sheets.

4 The fore tacks.

5 Fore Top-sail clewlines,

6 Main-top-sail leetch lines.

7 Fore bunt lines.

8 Mizzen bowlines.

9 Main-top-sail halliards.

And the like for the rest of the sails.

Most of these ropes are for hoisting the sails, and setting them in a proper position to the wind. For the wind always acts perpendicularly upon the plane of any sail; and urges the ship in direction of that perpendicular. And by help of the rudder *H*, she is made to keep any direction required. For if the rudder be put about to any side; the water (as the ship moves along) will act violently against it, and drive the stern the contrary way, or her head the same way, as the rudder. A ship with a brisk fair wind will sail 8 or 10 miles an hour.

EXAMPLE LXXXVII.

At an Air-pump. *C, D* two brass cylinders, 2 or 3 inches diameter and a foot high, having two valves at the bottom opening upwards. *t, t* two pistons working in the cylinders, having two valves also opening upwards. *FF* a handle going upon the axis of the wheel or lantern *E*, which wheel by the teeth, moves the racks *G, G*; and by them the pistons within the cylinders or pumps. *AB* a table or plate supported

277.

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. 277. ported by the pillars *I, I, I, I*. *H* the receiver of glass, which by the hollow pipe of brass *no* called the swan's neck, communicates with the cylinders by means of a hollow brass pipe *PQ*; into which the swan's neck passes. *rs* a mercurial gage, being a glass tube standing in the bucket of mercury *s*, and communicating with the pipe *no*. *K* a cock under the table *AB* to let in air into the pipe *no*, and so into the receiver, when there is occasion.

When the air is to be drawn out of the receiver *H*, a wet leather is placed over the plate, and upon that the receiver *H*. then raising the right hand *F*, the piston *t* of the barrel *D* is raised, which takes off the weight of the atmosphere; consequently the air passes out of the receiver *H*, through the swan's neck *no*, and through the hollow brass *PQ*, through the valve into the cylinder *D*. Then the right hand *F* put down, the valve at bottom of the cylinder *D* shuts, and the air passes through the valve at *t*: At the same time that the left hand being raised, draws the air from the receiver, through *noP*, through the valve into the cylinder *C*. So that by the motion of the handle *FF* up and down, the air is at length drawn out of the receiver *H*, by the pumps *C, D*. And the rarity of the air within the receiver, is known by the height of the mercury in the tube *rs*, which is known by the graduated frame. An absolute vacuum can never be perfectly made. For when the spring of the air is so weak as not to be able to lift up the valves at bottom of the cylinders, no more air can be drawn out.

278. The handle *F* is lately made to turn all one way, thus *A* is a crank turned by the handle *F*. *NN* the leader or sword going over the pin *I*, in the wheel *E*. Whilst the crank *A* is rising, it raises the side *S* of the wheel, and when the crank descends, it thrusts down the same side *S* of the wheel *E*. So the racks are alternately raised and depressed, as the crank goes about. There

There are several sorts of glassess made use of for the Air-pump. As *A* a receiver open at top, covered with a brass plate and oiled leather at *D*, and kept down by the cross piece *EF*, screwed down upon the pillars *BC*, which pillars are screwed into the table *AB* of the Air-pump.

279.

H a receiver open at top, with a plate and collar of wet leathers *K*, through which goes the slip wire *GI*, so tight as to let no air in. This serves to lift any thing up by the hook *I*.

280.

MP is a transferrer. *N* is a plate and leather, on which stands the receiver *M*. *NP* a hollow tube going through the plate. *O* a cock to open or shut the passage. The cock *O* being open, and the air exhausted by the pump, and then the cock being shut, the receiver and pipe may be taken away from the Air Pump, the vacuum remaining in *M*.

L a receiver close at the top; with infinite others of like sort.

EXAMPLE LXXXVIII.

London Bridge Water-works. *AB* the axis of the water wheel *CD*; which wheel is 20 feet diameter, and the axis 3 feet, and 19 feet long. *E*, *E* 26 floats $1\frac{1}{2}$ foot broad. *G* a spur wheel fixt to the axis *AB*, 8 feet diameter, 44 coggs of iron; this moves the trundle *H*, $4\frac{1}{2}$ feet diameter, and 20 rounds; *HI* its iron axis. *IK* a quadruple crank of cast iron 6 inches square, each crank being a foot from the axis. The crank is fastened to the axis at *I*, by help of a wedge going through both, which causes the crank to turn. *L*, *L* four iron spears belonging to the cranks, and fixt to the four leavers *MN*, 3 feet from the ends; which leavers are 24 feet long, moving on centers in a frame of wood. *P*, *P* four force pumps, wrought by four pistons or rods *NP*, these pumps are 7 or 8 inches

281.

U

inches

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. 281. inches diameter having valves opening upward. *O* a hollow trunk of cast iron, to which the pumps are close fixt. *Q* a sucking pipe going into the water. *RR* four hollow pipes 7 inches diameter, and close fixt to the lower part of the pumps; these pipes are close screwed to the hollow iron trunk *S*; into which 4 valves open. *T* a pipe communicating with the trunk *S*; through which the water is forced to any height. There are also four forcers placed at the ends *M, M* of the leavers *MN*, and working in four more pumps. At *B* the other end of the axis there is placed exactly the same work as at *A*; so that the great wheel *CD* works 16 pumps. There is also a machine made of cogwheels and trundles, contrived to raise the great wheel as the tide rises. The great wheel will go at any depth of water; and as the tide turns, the wheels go the same way with it; but stand still at high and low water.

As the great wheel is carried about by the tide, it carries round the spur wheel *G*, which carries the trundle *H* with the cranks *IK*, which by the swords *L* move the leavers *MN*. When the end *M* is pulled down, *N* is raised with the piston *NP* in the pump *P*, by which means the water is drawn out of the river through the pipe *Q* into the pump *P*; and when *NP* descends, the valve shuts, and the water is forced through the pipe *R*, through the trunk *S*, and along the pipe *T* into the town. And when *N* rises up again by the motion of the cranks, the valve in *S* shuts, and that in the pump opens and more water rises through the pipe *Q* into the pump *P*. And as the cranks stand every way, there is always water rising in some of the pumps; and some always forcing through *R, S, T*. When the tide is strongest, the great wheel goes 6 times round in a minute. This engine is said to raise 30 or 40 thousand hogsheds of water in a day.

EXAMPLE

EXAMPLE LXXXIX.

The Pile Engine for Westminster Bridge.

283.

A the great cogwheel fixt to the great shaft *D*. *MO*, a trundle and fly turned by the cogwheel, this is to prevent the horses from falling when the ram is discharged. *B* the drum or barrel on which the great rope is wound. *C* a lesser barrel on which the rope *L* is wound, carrying the weight *N*. The use of this is to hinder the follower from falling too fast. The barrels *B*, *C* are moveable about the great axis *D*. The cogwheel and barrel *B* are fixt together by the bolt *F* going through the cogwheel into the barrel. *EI* is a leaver moveable about 1, going through the great shaft *D*; this lifts up the bolt *F*, the end *E* being made heavier by a weight; by which means it locks the barrel *B* to the great wheel *A*. *KI* the forcing bar going into the hollow axis of the great shaft *D*; this rests upon the leaver *EI*. *XY* a great leaver moveable about 3, the end *X* being heavier, which with the end *Y* presses down the bar *KI*, thrusts down the end of the leaver at *F*, and lets the bolt *F* descend, to unlock the barrel *C*. *Z* a rope fixt at *X* and going up thro' the guides at *R*. *GK* a crooked leaver moveable about 2, the roller at the end *G* being pressed with the great rope, forces the end *K* against the catch at *K*, and hinders the bar *KI* from ascending. When the rope *H* slackens, the spring 7 forces the end *K* from the catch, and the bar *KI* ascends. *H* the great rope going round the barrel *B*, over the pulley *P*, up to the top and over the pulley *Q*, then down to the follower where it is fixt. *T* the ram that drives the piles. *S* the follower in which is fixt the tongs *W*, moveable about the center. *VV* the guides between which the ram falls. At the inside of the guides at *R*, where they are fastend together, there are two inclined planes. At the bottom of the follower is a slit, to receive the handle 6 of the ram *T*, to be

U 2

taken

DESCRIPTION OF

FIG. taken up by the tongs *W*. *a, b, c, d* timbers for
283. horses to draw at, in direction *abcd*.

As the horses go round, the great rope *H* is wound about the barrel *B*, and the follower *S* and ram *T* are drawn up, till the tongs come between the inclined planes, which squeezing the ends 4 4 together, opens the end 5 and lets the ram fall down. Then the follower *S* taking hold of the rope *Z* raises the end *X* and depresses the end *Y* of the lever *XY*, which thrusts down the bar *KI*, which thrusts down the end *FI* of the lever *EI*, with the bolt *F*, and unlocks the barrel *B*, which turning about the axis, the follower *S* descends by its weight, till it comes to the ram *T*; and the end 5 of the tongs slips over the handle 6 of the ram. Then the rope *H* slackens, and the spring 7 forces the end *K* from off the catch at top of the bar *KI*, and lets the bar rise, and the weight *E* raises the bolt *F*, and locks the barrel *B* to the wheel *A*; and the horses still going about, the end 5 of the tongs takes hold of the handle 6, and the ram *T* is drawn up as before.

All this machine is placed upon a boat which swims upon the water; and so is easily conveyed to any place desired.

EXAMPLE XC.

184. *GH a blowing wheel. AB, CD* an iron cross; to this is fixt the circle of iron *EF*. To these are fixt 12 leaves *I, I, I*, which reach no nearer the center than the iron circle. *1, 1, 1* are holes, through which the air passes into the cavities between the leaves. There is the same cross and iron circle on the other side, but without any hole. Through the centers of both sides is put an iron axis and fixt there, and on the further end a handle is put to turn it by. This wheel is inclosed in a case which just touches the edges of all the leaves. But the rim or out edge *KK* is at a small

SECT. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

293

small distance from the ends of the leaves. On this side **FIG. 284.**
 or Flat, of the case there is a hole left against the holes
 1, 1, to let the air through; the other flat is close.
LM is the sucking pipe, being a tube fixt upon the
 case, so as to communicate with the cavities, by the
 holes 1, 1. *G* is the blowing pipe, and is another
 wooden tube communicating with the inside of the
 case. The axis turns upon two concave pieces of me-
 tal fixed to the case, the handle being on the back
 side of the figure *abcd* is a thin ring of wood fasten-
 ing the leaves all together; and the like on the other
 side. On these rings are put two circles of blanketing
 to go close to the case, and also upon the iron circle
EF.

The frame being fixt, and the handle turned about
 in the order *BCAD*. The motion of the leaves moves
 the air very swiftly to the outside, which being con-
 fined by the rim, is forced in a tangent along the tube
G: whilst new air ascends along the sucking pipe *LM*,
 passes through the hole in the frame, and through the
 holes 1, 1, into the cavities between the leaves; and
 so thrown out of the wheel, through the tube blowing
 pipe *G*.

If the pipe *LM* be continued to the place where any
 foul air is; it may soon be thrown out through the
 tube *G*, and dispersed abroad. Or if the tube *LM*
 communicate with the fresh air, and *G* with any close
 room; fresh air may presently be injected into the
 room.

EXAMPLE XCI.

AB an artificial fountain to play with either end up. 285.
A and *B* two cavities; *FO*. *KB* two open pipes,
 fixt to the basons at *K* and *O*. *GHI* and *CDE* two
 curve tubes open at both ends. When the foun-
 tain stands on the end *A*, pour water in at *O*. Then
 turning the fountain like an hour glass upon the end
B, the water will descend through the pipe *CDE* and
 sprout out at *E*. The air passing up the pipe *OF* to

U 3

give

DESCRIPTION OF

- FIG. give it liberty. The water falling down upon the basin *EK*, runs through the pipe *KB* into the cavity *B*. And the fountain being turned, the water will descend through *GHI*, and spout out at *I* as before. And so being turned it will play afresh as often as you will.

Note, while the jet *E* is playing, if the end *O* of the pipe *FO* be stopt with the finger, the jet will cease playing: which being taken off, it will begin again. And so may be made to play or stop at pleasure.

EXAMPLE XCII.

286. *AF a Water Barometer.* *AD* is a small tube open at both ends, cemented in the neck of the bottle *CE*. Then the bottle being a little warmed to drive out some of the air, the end *A* is immersed in water tinged with cochineal, which goes into the bottle as it cools. Then it is set upright; and the water may be made to stand at any point *B*, by sucking or blowing at *A*. This is a very sensible barometer: for if it be removed to any higher place, a very small decrease in the air's gravity, will make the water rise sensibly in the tube. This may be made use of to find the level of places. But it is subject to this inconvenience, that it is a thermometer as well as a barometer, the least alteration of heat, raising the water in the tube. To prevent which it must be inclosed in a vessel of sand; and then the air included in the bottle will retain the same degree of heat, at least for a small time.

EXAMPLE XCIII.

287. *ADOF is a Jet d'eau.* *AB* the reservoir where the water is kept. *CDIO* the pipe of conduct which conveys water from the reservoir. *O* the cock or adjutage, being a small hole in a thin horizontal plate fixt upon the end of the pipe, through which the water flows. *OF* the jet of water, spouting up thro' the

Sect. XIII. COMPOUND ENGINES.

295

the hole O , which descends again in the streams FE and FH . OF the height of the jet. AG the horizontal height of the water in the reservoir. If the part LIO of the pipe of conduct be buried under the surface of the water KH , and be invisible; the jet will seem to rise out of the water KH , as in many artificial fountains.

FIG.
287.

The adjutage is sometimes made conical, but the best sort for spouting highest, is a thin plate with a hole in it. The bore of the adjutage ought to increase with the height of the reservoir, and the larger the adjutage the higher the jet will go, provided the pipe of conduit be large enough to supply it with water. Pipes of conduit ought not to be made with elbows, but to turn off gradually in a curve as DIO . The diameters of pipes of conduct ought at least to be 5 or 6 times the diameters of the adjutage, or else it will not sprout so high. If a reservoir be 50 foot high, and the adjutage half an inch; the pipe of conduct should at least be 3 inches; or if the adjutage be an inch, which is better, the pipe of conduct must be 6 inches. And in these cases the jet will rise to the greatest height it can have. In general the diameter of the adjutage ought to be nearly as the square root of the height of the reservoir. And if you would have the velocity in the pipe of conduct to be the same at all heights of the reservoir, that the friction may not increase too much; then the square of the diameter of the pipe of conduct must be as the cube of the diameter of the adjutage. When water is carried a great way through pipes; the friction of the pipes will diminish its velocity, and the jet will not rise so high.

A jet never rises to the full height of the reservoir. If the height be 5 feet 1 inch, the jet will only rise to 5 feet; thus the jet QF wants the space FG of the height of the reservoir. And the defect FG is as the square of the height of the reservoir OG . But smaller jets fall short more than in that proportion, being more retarded by the resistance of the air. The

DESCRIPTION OF &c.

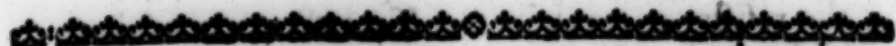
- FIG. 287. greatest jets never rise 300 feet high; for the velocity is so great that the water is dissipated into small drops, by the resistance of the air. ~~If a ball of cork or light wood be laid at F, it will be suspended by the pillar of water, and play there without falling.~~

EXAMPLE XCIV.

288. *AGE* is a compound steelyard, for weighing vast weights. *IG*, *CK* two leavers moveable about *B* and *E*. *LE*, *MB* two fixt pieces. *AC* a cross bar supporting the end *C*, and moveable about the pins *A* and *C*. The center of gravity of *IG* and *AC* is in *B*; and of *CK* and the hook *DN*, in *E*. *H* the weight to be weighed. *F* the counterpoise moveable along the graduated leaver *BG*. This machine is hung upon the hooks at *L*, *M*. Here the power *F* is to the weight *H*, as $AB \times DE$ to $CE \times BF$.

More examples of the construction of engines might here be added. But as there is such an infinite variety in the world, it would be an endless task to describe all the kinds of them. Therefore I think it needless to produce any more, especially since their construction and use depend upon the same principles as these already described. And if the reader does but thoroughly understand the powers and forces of these before mentioned; he cannot be at a loss to find out the powers, forces, or motions of any other machine, though never so compounded.

F I N I S.



AN ALPHABETICAL
INDEX
OF THE
TERMS used in MECHANICS.

A.

Air Pump, a machine to draw the air out of a glass:
fig. 277.

Adjutage, the spout for a *Fet d'eau* in a fountain.

Amplitude, the distance a ball is shot to.

Anemoscope, a machine for shewing the point of the
wind. See fig. 253.

Angle of application, is the angle which the line of di-
rection of a power makes with the lever
it acts upon.

———— of *inclination*, is the angle an inclined plane
makes with the horizon.

———— of *Traction*, the angle which the direction of
a power makes with an inclined plane.

Aqueduct, an artificial river, or tube to convey water:

Arbor, the axle or spindle of a wheel. fig. 185. *cf.*

Arch, a hollow wall made of a circular form, to sup-
port any building.

Areometer, an instrument to measure the weight of li-
quors.

Arm,

EXPLANATION OF

Arm, any piece of timber or metal, that projects horizontally from some part of a machine.

Axle, or *Axis*, the line or spindle about which a wheel turns round. *Fig. 185. ef.*

Axis in Peritrochio, a machine for raising weights, consisting of a wheel, fixt upon a cylinder for its axis.

B.

Balance, machine to weigh bodies in, one of the mechanic powers. *Fig. 188.*

Balance-wheel, the flye or pendulum of a watch.

Barometer, a machine to shew the weight of the air or atmosphere. See *Fig. 218.*

Baroscope, the same as barometer: a weather glass.

Barrel of a wheel, is the axle, or cylindrical body, about which the rope goes.

—— of a pump, is the hollow part of the pump where the piston works.

Bars, streight pieces of timber or metal, that run cros from one part of a machine to another.

Base, the foot of a pillar.

Basil, that angle, the edge of a tool is ground to.

Batten, a piece of timber 3 or 4 inches broad and an inch thick.

to *Batter*, to lean backward.

Bauk, a long piece of timber.

Beak, the crooked end of a piece of iron, to hold any thing fast.

Beam, a large piece of timber, lying across any place.

Beetle, a wooden instrument or mallet for driving piles.

Bevil, any angle that is not right. An oblique angle.

Block, a lump of wood.

Blocks, pieces of wood in which the sheevers or pulleys run, and through which the ropes go. *Fig. 42. A, B.*

Bolts, large iron pins.

Bond, the fastening several pieces of timber together, either by mortise and tenant, dufftailing, &c.

Brace,

Brace, a piece of timber fixt obliquely into others, to stay them from moving any way.

Brackets, the cheeks of the carriage of a mortar. A cramping iron to stay timber work. Also stays set under a shelf to support it.

Brads, nails having no broad heads.

Bridge, any horizontal beam, &c. that is a support to something.

Butments, those supports on which the feet of arches rest.

Buttress, a piece of strong wall that stands on the outside of another wall to support it.

C.

Capstand, a machine on board a ship, to hoist the masts, or raise any weight. *Fig. 248.*

Cascade, a fall of water.

Cataract, is a precipice, or violent fall of water in a river, through high rocks, causing the water to fall with a great noise and force.

Catch, some small part of a machine; which, in its motion, hooks or lays hold of some other part to stop it.

Center of motion, the point about which a body moves.

——— *of gravity*, the point upon which a body being suspended, it will rest in any position.

——— *of magnitude*, a point equidistant from the opposite extremes of a body; the middle.

——— *of percussion*, the point of a vibrating body that gives the greatest stroke.

Center pin, a pin about which, as a center, a body moves.

Chain pump, a pump having several buckets fixt to an endless chain, which goes through it, and is moved round upon an axle. *Fig. 254.*

Chaps, two sides of a machine which take hold of any thing.

Cheeks

EXPLANATION OF

Cheeks, two upright parts in a machine answering to one another in position and use.

Chronoscope, a pendulum to measure time.

Clack, a sort of valve which is flat, like a board; serving to stop a fluid from running out. *Fig. 268. T* a flap.

Clamp't, when the edges of two pieces of boards are joined together, so as the grain of one may lye cross the grain of the other.

Clasp, a sort of buckle to fasten any thing.

Clasp nails, those with little heads to sink into the wood.

Claws, slender crooked pieces of metal in a machine, which serve to move or hold any thing. Long teeth.

to **Clench** or **Clinch**, to double back the end of a nail that it may not draw out again. *To rivet.*

Clench nails, nails that may be clinched.

Cock, a brass spout to let a fluid run out, or stop it, by turning.

Cogs, the wooden teeth of a great wheel. *Fig. 185. a, a, a.*

Cog-wheel, a large wheel made of timber, where the teeth stand perpendicular to the plane of the wheel. *Fig. 185. CD.*

Collar, a ring of metal that goes about any thing, near the top, in which it turns round.

Column, the shaft or trunk of a pillar.

Contrate-wheel, a wheel in a clock, where the teeth are parallel to the axis, and stand on the under side the rim.

Corbel, a piece of timber or stone, set under another piece to discharge the weight.

Crab, a small capstan with 3 claws to be placed on the ground, moveable from one place to another. This is called a flying capstane.

Crane, a machine for hoisting goods out of a ship, or for raising timber or stone. *Fig. 233.*

Crank, that part of an iron axis which is turned square with an elbow. *Fig. 238, II.*

Cross-tree, a horizontal beam fixt across another.

Crow,

T E R M S.

301

Crow, a strong square bar of iron, forked at the end; to remove heavy timber, &c. by using it with the hands.

Crown-wheel, in a clock or watch, is that next the ballance, its teeth stand in the upper side of the rim, and not in the edge. *Fig. 166. FG.*

Cupulo, a hollow arched tower, in form of a hemisphere, or a bowl turned upside down.

D.

Density, is the greater or lesser quantity of matter contained in a given space.

Detents, are those stops, which being lifted up, the clock strikes; and falling down, she stops.

Dognails, nails used for fastening hinges.

Dome, a round vaulted roof or tower. A cupola.

Dormant, a great beam lying cross a house. A summer.

Dormer, a window in the roof of a house.

Dovetailing, letting one piece of timber into another, with a joint in form of a dove's tail, being broader at the end, that it may not draw out again.

Drum, the lantern or trundle which is carried by a great wheel. *Fig. 266. EF.*

Drum-head, a timber-head, or lump of timber, in form of a drum.

E.

Edging, the outside or border.

Endless-chain, a chain with the ends joined together; by which any part of a machine is wrought.

Endless-screw, a screw working in the teeth of a wheel; which may be turned about for ever. *Fig. 193. E.*

Engine, a mechanical instrument composed of wheels, levers, screws, &c.

Eolipyle,

EXPLANATION OF

Eolipyle, a hollow globe of metal, filled with water, and put in the fire; the heat and vapour rushes out at a small hole, with a great noise.

Fig. 264.

Equilibrium, the equality of weight, of two or more bodies, &c. keeping one another at rest.

Eye, a hole in some part of a machine, through which any thing is put.

F.

Face, the front or forefide of a machine, or of some principal part of it.

Fang, some small piece of metal like a long tooth, that by its motion moves some other part.

Fellies, pieces of wood on the outside of a wheel, which make the rim.

Ferril, a sort of hoop.

Floats, the flat boards set perpendicular on the edge of a water-wheel; by which the water drives the wheel about. *Fig. 236. D, D.*

Fly, that part in a clock, &c. that regulates the motion, and makes it uniform. *Fig. 168, 169, 170.*

Force, any thing that acts upon a body to put it in motion.

Force-pump, a pump that discharges water by pressing it upwards. *Fig. 267, 268.*

Frame, the outwork of any machine, or what holds all the rest together.

Free, clear of all impediment.

Friction, the resistance that bodies have by rubbing against one another.

Fulcrum, that which supports a leaver in moving any heavy body.

G. Gain,

G.

Gain, the levelling shoulder of a joist or other timber.

Gin, a machine to raise great weights. *Fig. 257.*

Gravity, the weight of bodies.

—— *specific*, by this one body weighs more or less than another of the same bulk.

—— *relative*, is the weight of a body in a fluid, or on an inclined plane.

Groove, a channel cut in wood or stone.

Gudgeons, the eyes in the stern of a ship, on which the rudder hangs. The center pins of an axle.

Gyration, a whirling round.

H.

Hand, an index or pointer.

Handle, the part of an instrument to take hold on with the hand.

Handspike, a wooden leaver to be used with the hand, in moving any thing.

Head, the top part of any thing.

Hem, the edge of some cloth turned down and sewed.

Hinge, an iron joint on which a door turns, &c.

to *Hitch*, to catch hold on, with a hook or turn of a rope.

to *Hoise* or *Hoist*, to heave up, or raise by force.

Hook pins, taper iron pins with a hook head, by which they are struck out again. They serve to pin the frame of a roof or floor together, till wrought off.

Hoop, a circular ring to put about any thing, to keep it fast.

Hydraulics, the art of making engines, for water works.

Hydrometer, an instrument to measure the density of fluids. *Fig. 269.*

Hydrostatics,

EXPLANATION OF

Hydrostatics, a science teaching the weights, pressures, motions and properties of fluids.

Hydrostatical Ballance, an instrument for finding the specific gravity of bodies.

Hygrometer, } an instrument for measuring the moisture
Hygroscope, } and dryness of the air. Fig. 265.

I.

Jack, an engine to lift up a loaded cart, or the roof of a house, &c. See Fig. 249. Also an engine to roast meat, Fig. 258.

Jack-pump, a chain pump.

Jaums, Door posts, or window posts, &c.

Jet d' eau, the pipe of a fountain, which spouts up water into the air. Fig. 287.

Impetus, any blow or force wherewith one body strikes or impells another.

Joint, the place where one part is fixt into another, or moves about it.

Joists, those pieces of timber framed into the dormant, in a house, and on which the boards of the floor are laid.

K.

Keys, stones in the top of an arch, to bind the sweeps together.

Kenk, a snarle or little turn upon a rope, that it cannot run.

Knee, a crooked or angular branch of timber.

L.

Lantern, that part which is moved by the cogs of a great wheel, acting against the spindles or rounds. The drum. Fig. 266. EF.

Latch, that which fastens a door, &c. a *Sneck*.

Leaver, a bar of iron or wood to raise a weight: one of the mechanic powers.

Leaves, the teeth of a pinion. Fig. 185. c, c, c.

Ledge, a flat border or plain, adjoining to a thing.

Level, an instrument to place any thing horizontal.

Lynch-pin, a pin that keeps a wheel from coming off its axle, Lip,

Lip, a thin edge turned hollow.

Loop, a piece of metal having a hole in the end, which goes over something. A noose in a rope that will slip.

M.

Machine, a mechanical instrument for moving bodies.

Mechanics, a science that teaches the principles of motion, and construction of engines, to move great weights.

Mechanic powers, are these six; the balance, lever, wheel, pulley, screw, and wedge.

Mitre, an angle of 45 degrees, or half a right one. And *half mitre* is a quarter of a right angle.

Momentum, quantity of motion; or the force or power a body in motion has to move another.

Mortise, a square hole cut in a piece of stuff, to receive the tenant.

Motion, is the successive change of place of a body; or its passing from one place to another.

Moving force, any active force or power that moves a body.

Mouth, the part or parts of a machine that take hold of any thing: The entrance into any cavity.

N.

Nave or *Naff*, the block in the middle of a wheel.

Neck, a part near the end, cut small.

Notch, a dent, nick or slit made in any thing.

Nut, the pinion of a wheel. *Fig. 185, AB*. A small piece of metal going upon the end of a screw nail.

O.

Oscillation, the vibration or swinging of a pendulum.

P.

Paddles, a sort of oars; the laddle boards on the edge of a water wheel.

Pedestal, the base or bottom part of a pillar.

X

Peers

EXPLANATION OF

Peers, a sort of buttresses, for support and strength.

Peg, a pin to go into a hole.

Pendulum, a weight hung by a string or wire, swinging back and forward to measure time.

Penstock, the sluice or door, that opens or shuts the passage of the water to a water wheel.

Percussion, the striking of one body against another.

Pestil, a long piece of wood or metal, which rises up and falls down again to beat or bruise something.

Pevets or *Pivots*, the ends of the spindle of a wheel in a clock or any machine, which play in the

Pevet holes, the holes in which the ends of the spindle or axel of a wheel turn. *Fig. 185. ef.*

Picket, a stake pointed with iron, to drive into the ground.

Pillar, a perpendicular column supporting one end of an arch, &c.

Pinion, a little wheel at one end of the spindle, consisting but of a few leaves or teeth. *Fig. 185. AB.*

Piston, a round piece of wood moving up and down within the body of a pump, to draw up the water.

Plate, a piece of timber, on which some heavy work is framed, as wall plate, &c. A flat piece of metal.

Pneumatics, a science teaching the properties of the air.

Pole, a long staff or slender piece of wood.

Post, a perpendicular or upright beam of wood.

Power, the force applied to an engine to raise any weight. Or any force acting upon a body to move it.

to *Project*, to jet out or hang over.

Projectiles, balls or any heavy bodies thrown into the air.

Prop, a stay or support for any thing, to bear it up.

Pulley, a small wheel with a channel in the edge of it, moving about an axis fixt in a block; the channel is to receive a rope that goes over it. One of the mechanic powers.

Pump, an engine to raise water. *Fig. 204.*

Punchins, short pieces of timber, placed upright to support some weight.

R.

Rag-wheel, the barrel or wheel in a chain pump.

Rails, small pieces of wood joined into others; those pieces into which the pannels of doors, &c. are fitted.

Rammer, an instrument for driving stones or piles into the ground, or beating the earth.

Random, the distance to which a ball is shot.

Range, the direction a ball is shot in, from a piece of ordnance.

to *Range*, to run streight or directly in a line.

to *Reeve*, to pass a rope through any hole.

Return, the side that turns off from any piece of streight work.

Ribs, slender pieces of timber, serving for strength and support

Riglets, little flat, thin, square pieces of wood.

Rim, the circular part or outside of a wheel.

to *Rivet*, to batter down the end of a nail, that it draw not out again.

Rod, a long slender piece of wood or metal.

Roll or *Roller*, an engine turned by a handle, to raise weights. *Fig.* 243.

Rounds, the staves or spindles in a lantern, against which the teeth of a great wheel work. *Fig.* 266. *c, c.* The steps in a ladder, &c.

Ruler, a thin streight piece of wood.

Rungs, spindles or rounds. *Fig.* 266. *c, c.*

Runner, a flat circular ring, between the nave and limpin of a wheel. Also a sort of rope on board a ship, to hoist with.

S.

Sails, large pieces of canvass, by which ships, wind-mills, &c are carried, by help of the wind.

Scantlin, stuff cut to a proper size.

Screw, one of the mechanic powers, the tap with the thread is the *male screw*, the hollow that receives it, is the *female screw*.

Scribing

EXPLANATION OF

Scribing, drawing an irregular line upon one piece of stuff, parallel to the irregular side of another, with a pair of compasses opened to a due distance; and carried along the side of it. Then the wood in the first piece being cut away, these two pieces will fit each other.

to *Seaze*, to bind or fasten a rope, &c.

Shaft, or *Shank*, any long part of an instrument, especially that is held with the hands.

Sheers, two poles set up an end sloping, and tied together at top; and secured by a rope from falling. Their use is to raise any weight by help of a block and tackle at top.

Sheevers, pullies, the little wheels that run in blocks, by a rope going over them.

Shelf, a board, &c. fixt horizontally.

Shoulder, a part of timber or metal cut thicker than the rest, in order to support something.

Shrouds, the ledges on the edge of a guttered wheel.

Sills, *Sells*, or *Groundsels*, pieces of timber that lye on the ground, into which others are fixed. Sole trees.

Siphon, a crooked glass tube, for drawing off liquors. Fig. 216.

Sleepers, pieces of timber laid as a foundation and support for others that are to lye upon them.

Slings, these are made of a rope spliced with an eye at either end, to go over a cask or some heavy thing, which is to be hoisted.

Snatch block, a great block with a sheever in it; and a notch cut through one of the cheeks of it; to hitch the rope into the pulley, for readiness.

Socket, a hollow piece of metal, in which any thing moves.

Sole, the bottom of the gutter or channel, in a guttered wheel.

Sole-tree, the lowest piece of timber which lies flat on the ground, into which the upper works are framed. The Groundsel.

Spanish

Spanish Burton, a sort of tackle to hoist goods, like fig. 197.

Spear, a long pointed iron, or piece of timber.

Specific gravity, is that whereby one body weighs more or less than another of the same magnitude.

Spike, a pointed iron, or piece of wood.

Spindle, the axle of a wheel. Fig. 185. *cf.*

Spires, the turns of a rope about a cylinder or roller.

to *Splice*, to join two ropes together by working the strands into one another.

Spokes, pieces of wood running from the center of a wheel to the circumference, like rays.

Spring, an instrument made of steel, that being bent, it continually exerts a great force, that it may unbend itself again. Springing plates are sometimes made of brass.

Spur, a sort of prop, set aslope to thrust.

Spurs, long wooden teeth standing in the edge of a large timber wheel. Fig. 192. *a, a, a.*

Spur wheel, a wooden wheel where the teeth stand in the edge of the rim. Fig. 192. *CD.*

Staff, a stick or small piece of wood.

Statics, a part of mechanics, teaching the motions and properties of heavy bodies.

Stay, a piece of timber, or other thing fixed as a prop or support to some heavy body.

Steelyard, an instrument to weigh bodies, consisting of a long beam and a moveable weight. Fig. 190.

Stock, the wooden part of a thing, and into which it is fixed.

Stopple or *stopper*, a plug that fits into a hole.

Stops, any small pieces in a moving machine, that serve to stop the motion.

Strain, the stress or violence any thing suffers by a weight or force acting against it.

Stroaks or *Straiks*, the iron going round the circumference of carriage wheels.

Stud,

EXPLANATION OF

Stud, a knob or little button. A solid piece of metal fixt to a plate.

Stuff, any wood that joiners work upon.

Swivel, a metal ring that turns about any way.

Syphon, the same as Siphon. *A crane. Fig. 216.*

Syringe, an instrument for injecting liquors into any place.

T.

Tackles, blocks with pullies and ropes in them, to heave up goods. *Fig. 196, 197.*

Tenon, the square end of a piece of wood, made to fit into a mortise hole.

Thermometer, } an instrument to shew the degrees of
Thermoscope, } heat and cold. *Fig. 270.*

Tbread, the spiral ridge, that goes winding round a screw.

Thrust, the action against a body to push it forward.

Tight, stiff, close.

Tongue, a thin slender piece of metal in a machine.

Tool, an instrument to work with.

Tooth, the indented part on the edge of a wheel that moves some other wheel. Or what serves to cut, or take hold on.

Transom, an overthwart beam in a building.

Triangle, an engine standing on three legs, to raise weights with. *Fig. 195.*

Trundle, the part which is carried about by the teeth of a wooden wheel. The lantern or drum. *Fig. 266, EF.*

Trunk, a hollow tube or box.

Tumbler, a part in a machine that rolls about upon an axis, and plays back and forward.

Tumbrel, a roller, or cylindrical beam of wood.

Tympanum, a kind of wheel placed on an axle, and has staves or rounds instead of teeth, and is carried about by a great wooden wheel. A trundle or drum. *Fig. 266. EF.*

U. Valve,

U.

Valve, a piece of wood, &c. so fitted into a hole, that it opens and lets a fluid pass through one way; and shuts and stops it, the other. *Fig. 268.*

V. W. A *sucking valve* is that where the water follows the piston. A *forcing valve*, when it is driven through before it.

Vane, a sail, or fan; generally to shew the point of the wind.

Velocity, an affection of motion, and is that by which a body passes over a certain space in a given time. Swiftnefs, or celerity.

Vibration, the moving or swinging of a pendulum back and forward.

Vis inertiae, a property of body, by which it resists any impressed force, and endeavours to continue in the same state.

W.

Wallower, a trundle upon a horizontal axis. *Fig. 257, F.*

Waterpoise, an instrument to try the strength of liquors. A Hydrometer.

Web, the thin broad part of an instrument, as the web of a key, &c.

Wedge, an instrument to cleave wood. One of the mechanic powers.

Weight, the tendency of bodies downward. The matter raised by an engine.

Wheel, a machine consisting of an axis and a circular rim, with teeth in it, and then it is called a toothed wheel.

— *smooth*, a wheel without teeth, turned by a rope.

Wheel and axle, a machine to raise weights. One of the mechanic powers, *Fig. 30.*

Winch,

EXPLANATION OF, &c.

Winch, an instrument with a crooked handle, to turn any thing about with.

Winder, a winch or handle, to wind about.

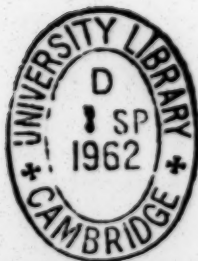
Windless, a machine to raise great weights. On board a ship, it serves to hoist the anchor. It is an horizontal roller, turned round by handspikes.

Windmill, a mill to grind corn, moved by the wind.
Fig. 266.

Wing, a thin broad part that covers something, or hangs over it. Also what helps to give due motion to any thing; as the hands in a water wheel; a part of a sail, &c.

Worm, a spiral thread running round a cylinder, forming a sort of screw.

The E N D of the T E R M S.

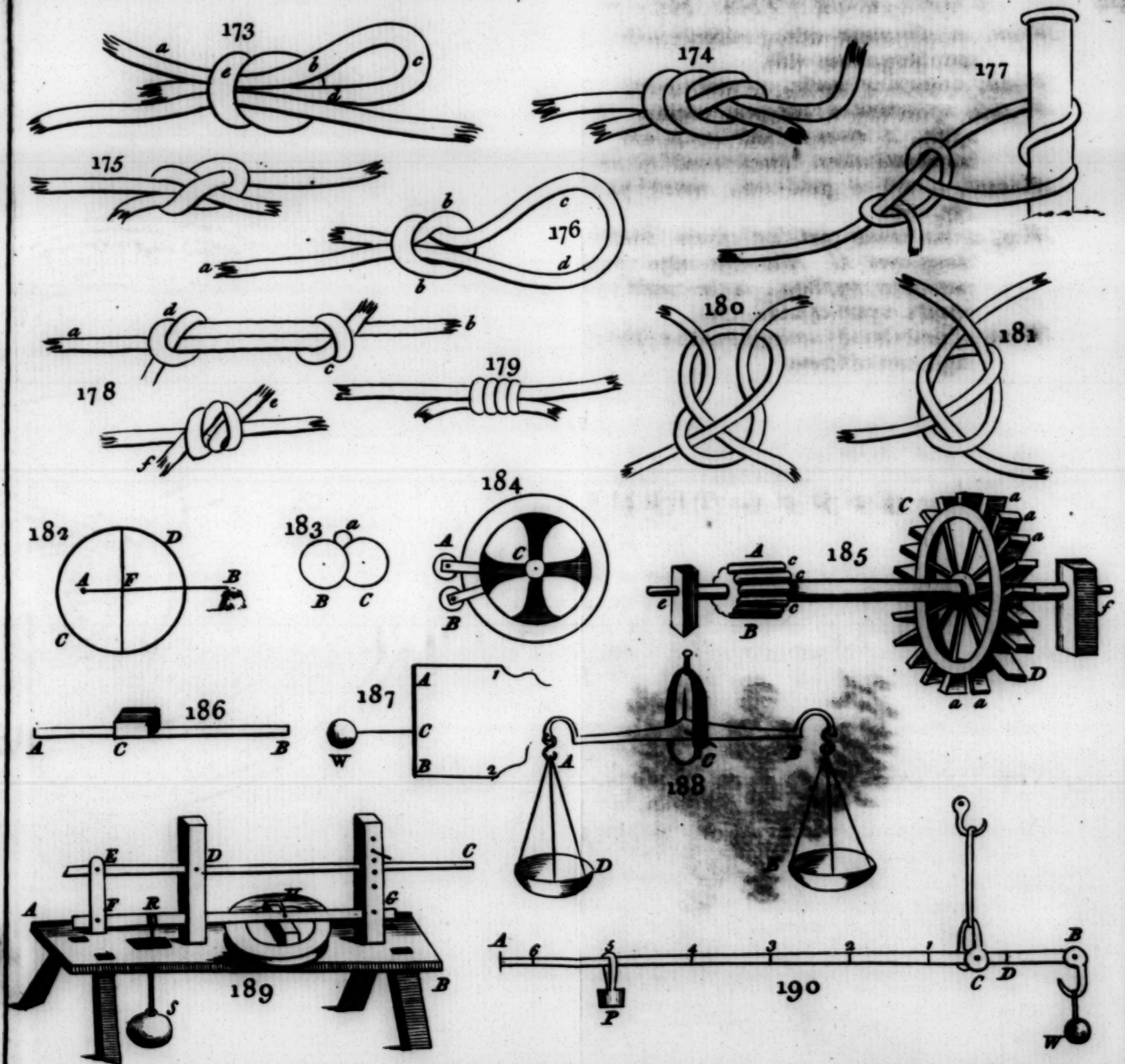


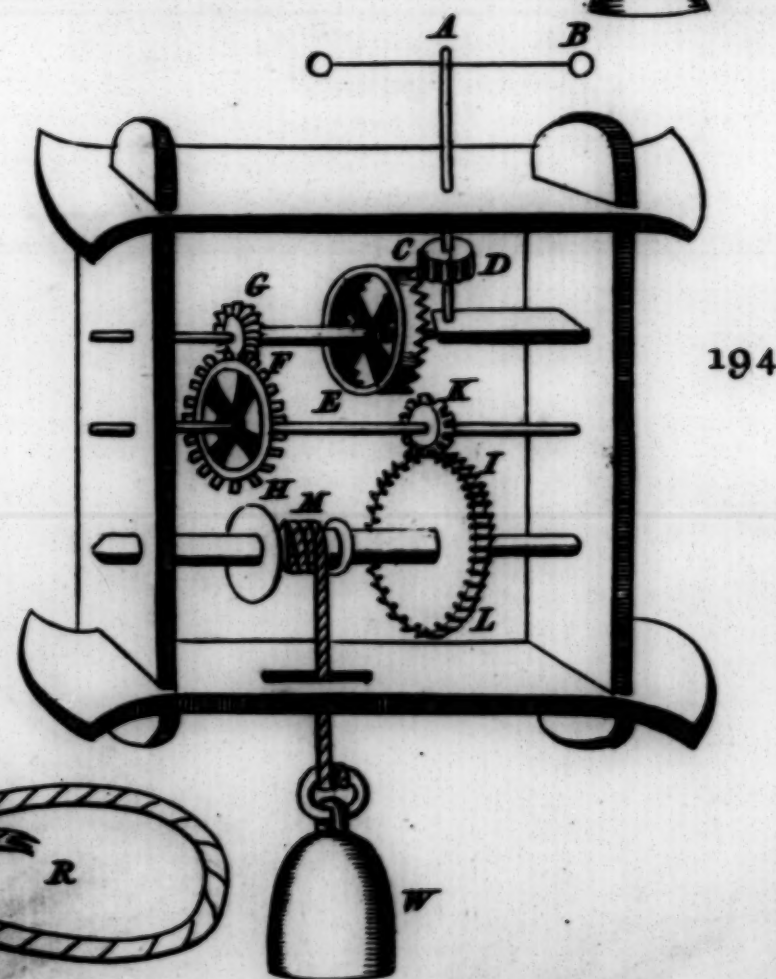
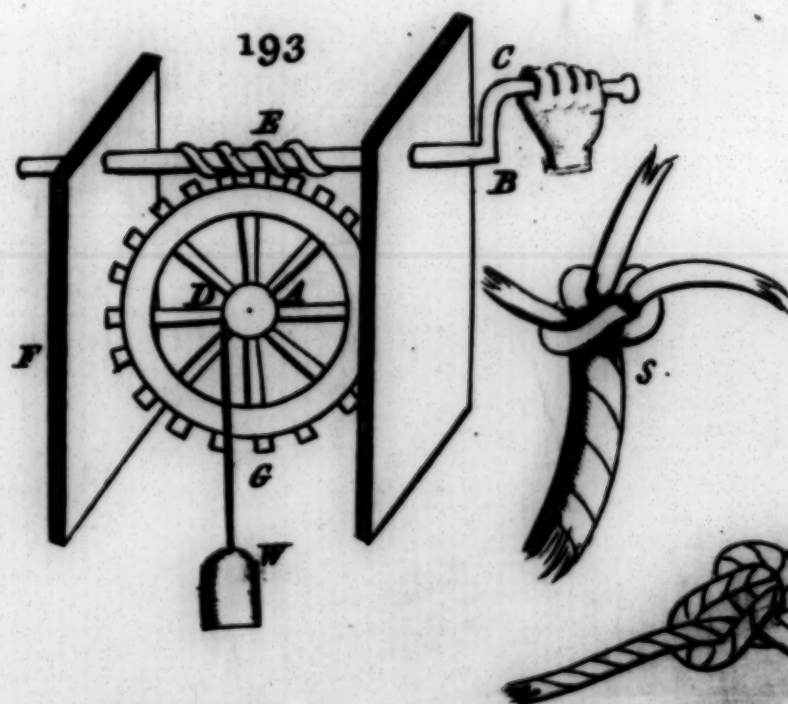
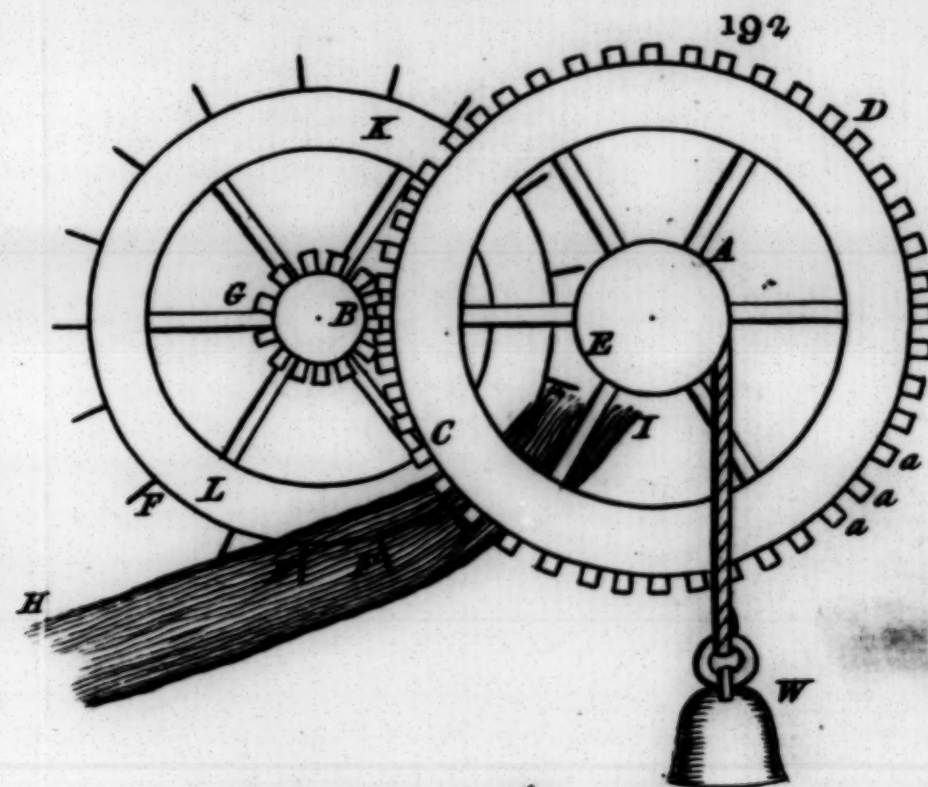
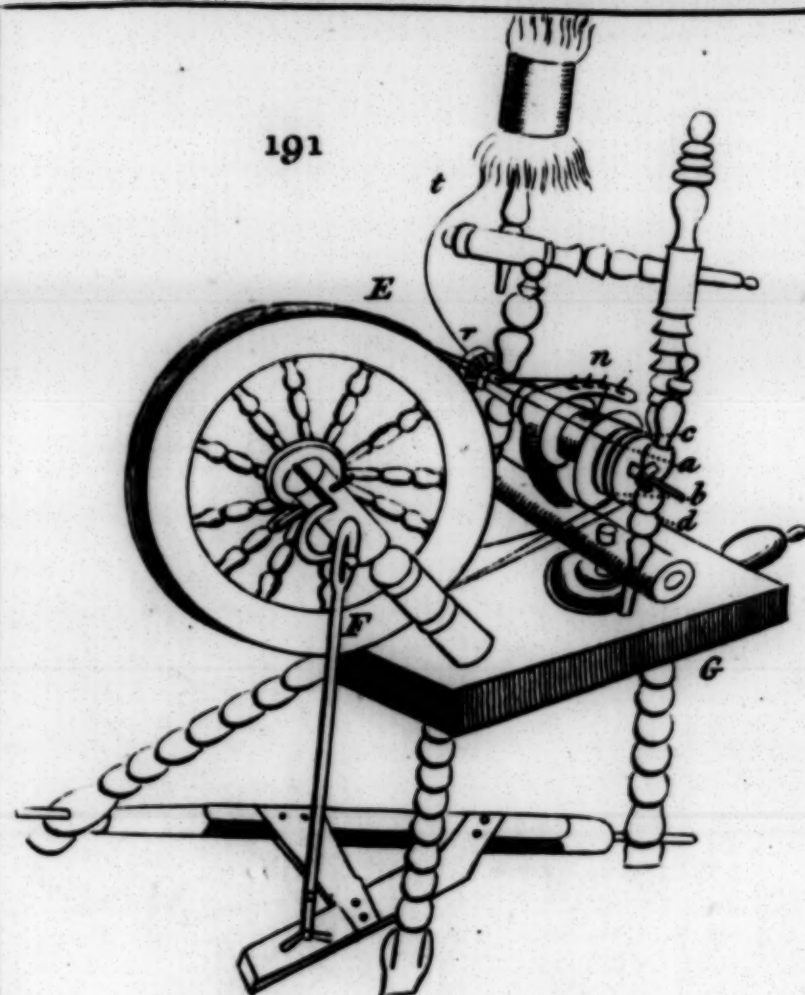
turn

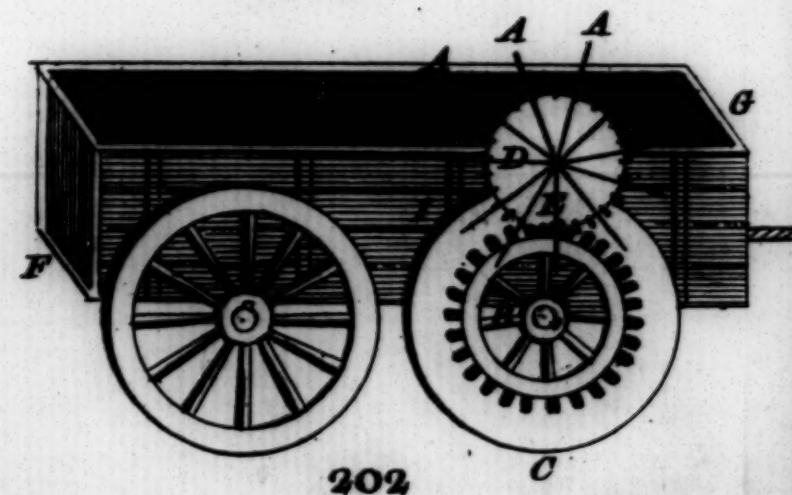
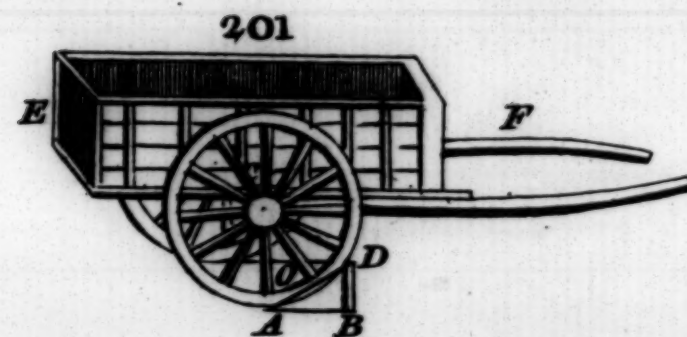
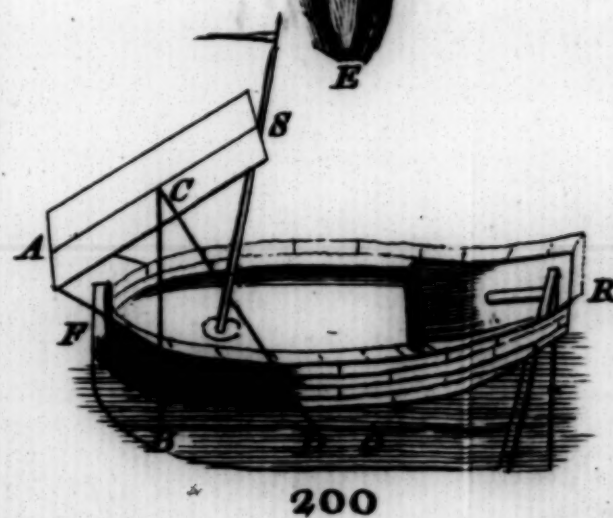
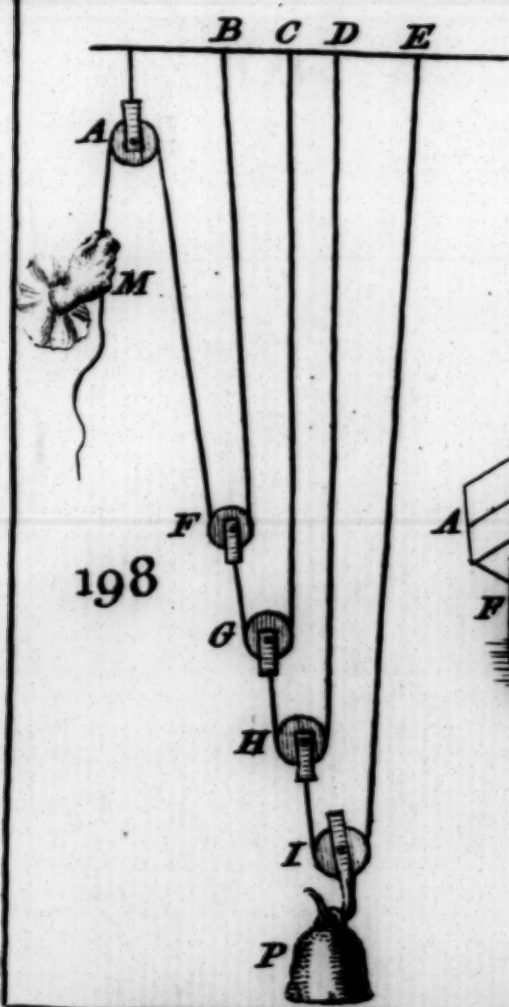
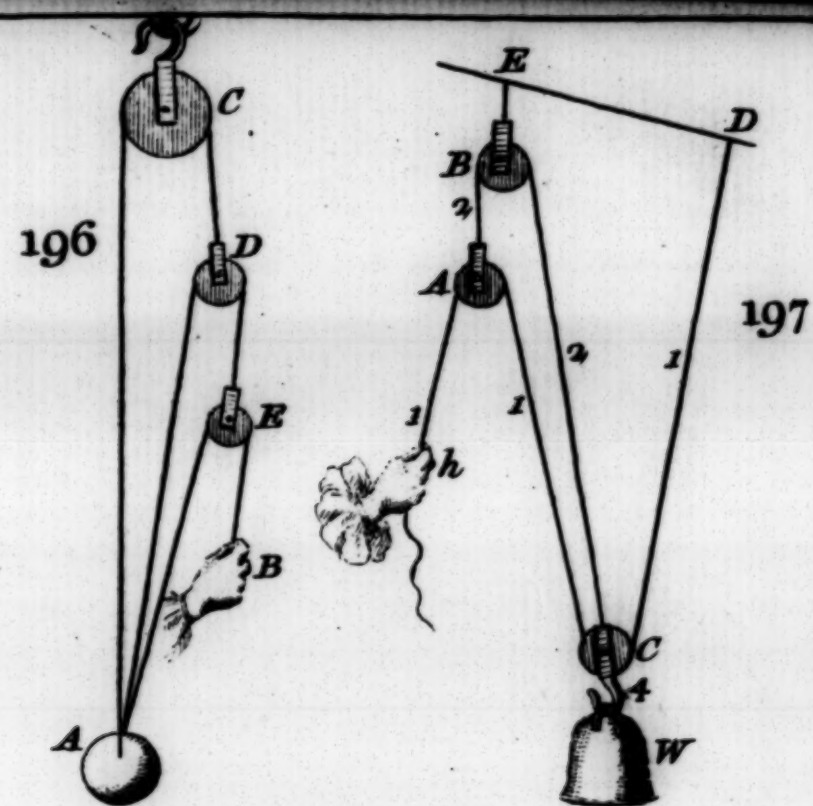
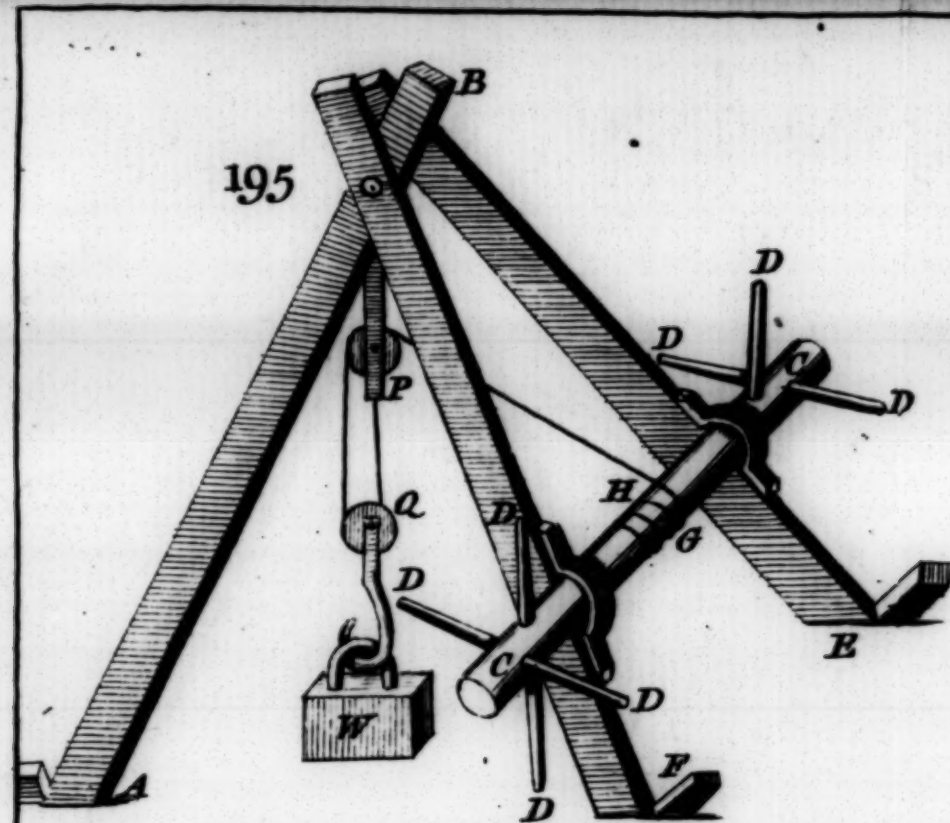
board
is an
ikes.
wind.

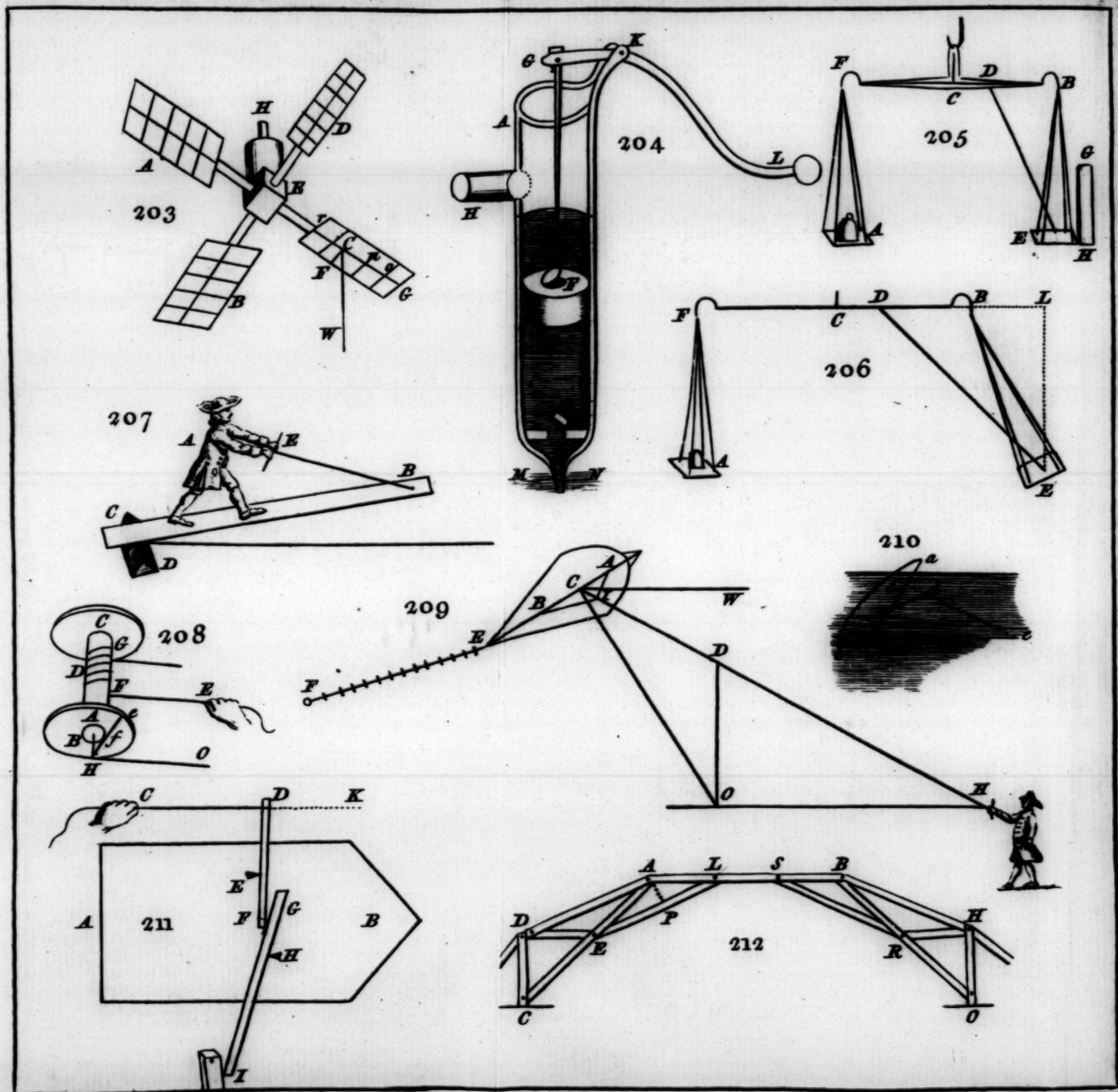
, or
duc
water

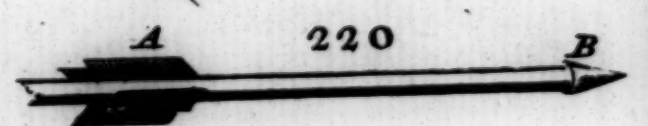
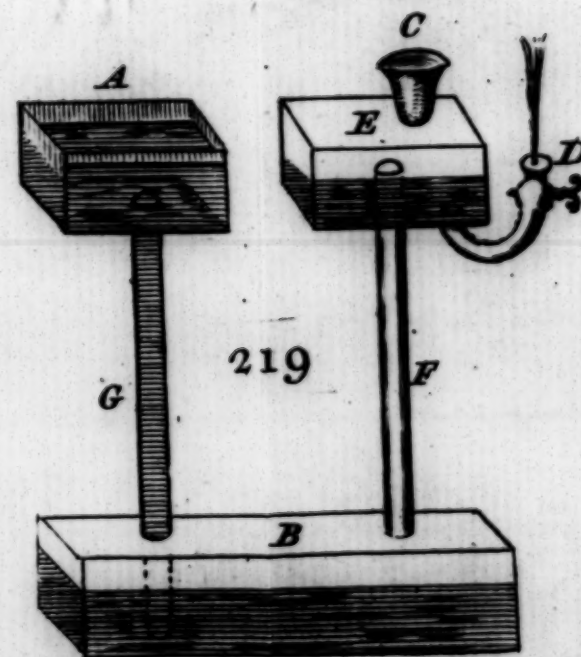
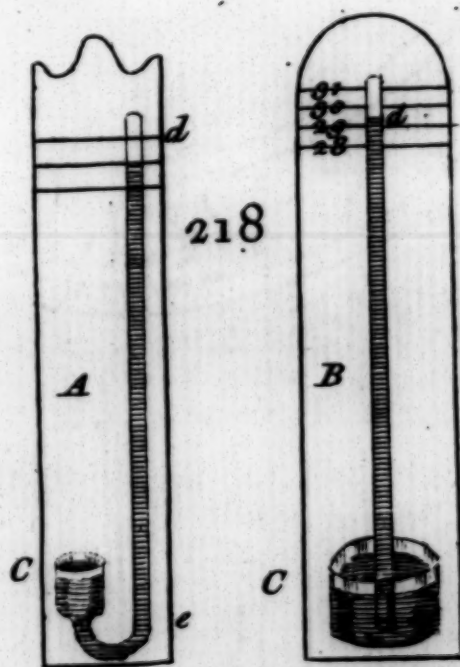
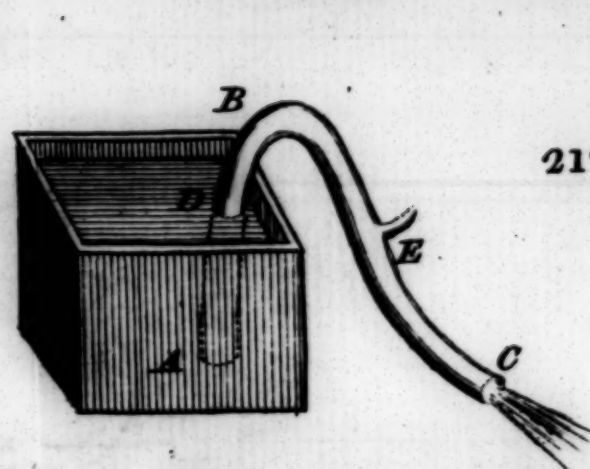
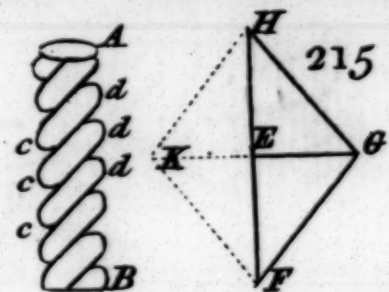
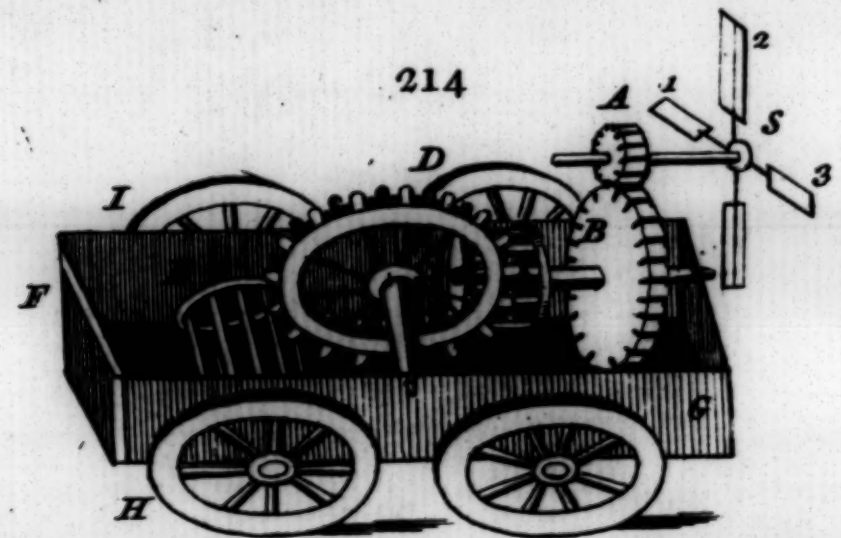
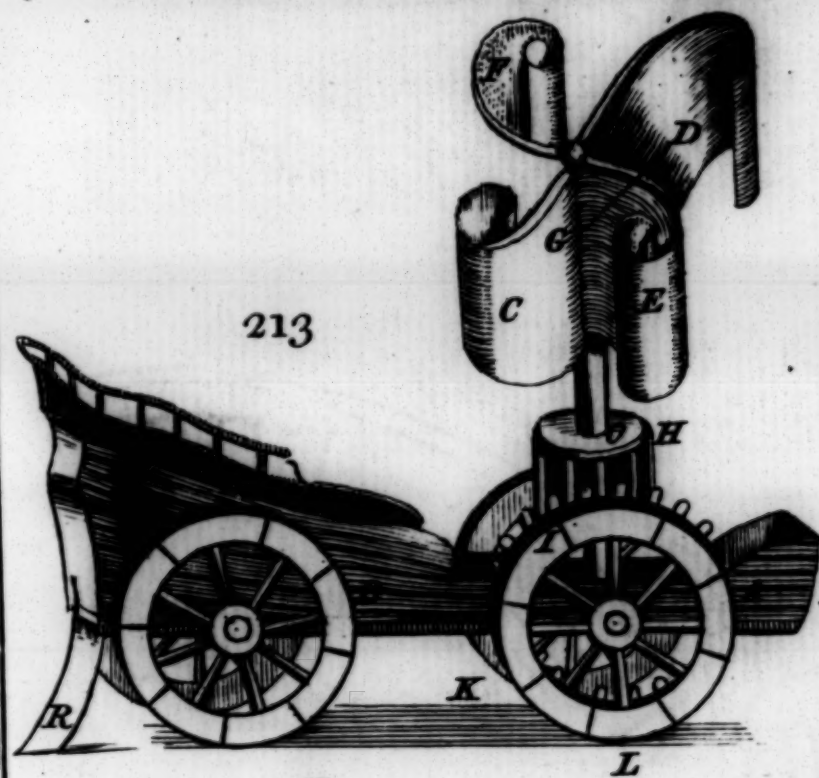
orm-

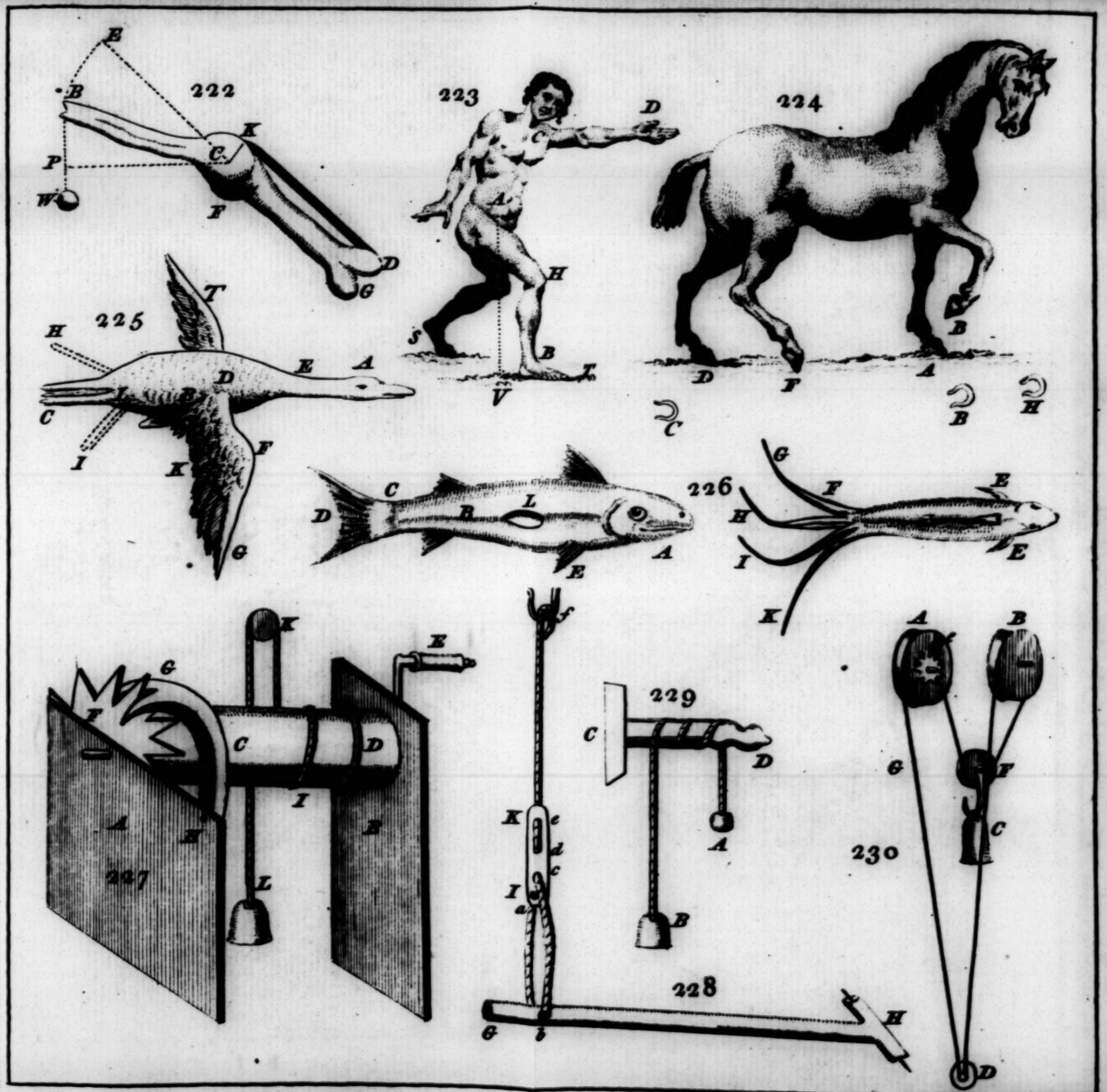


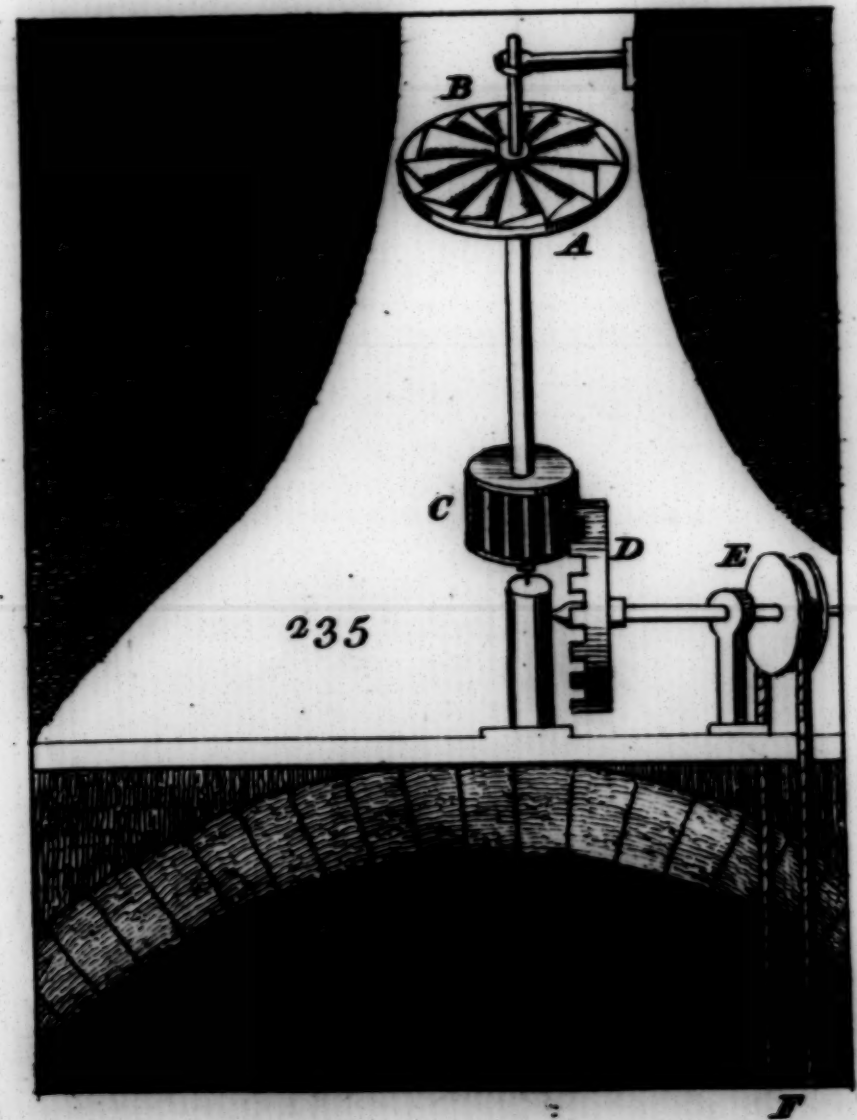
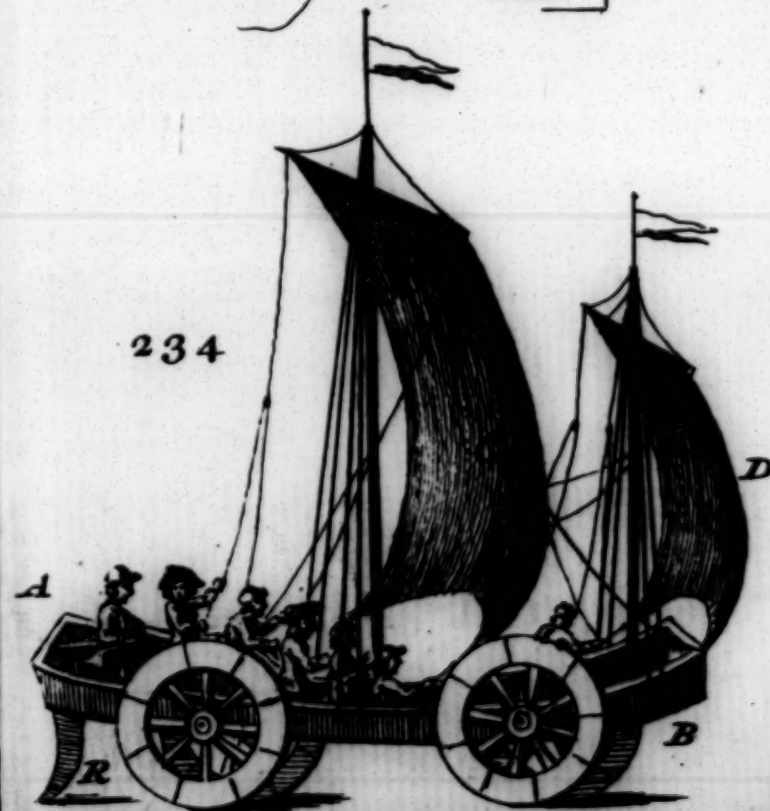
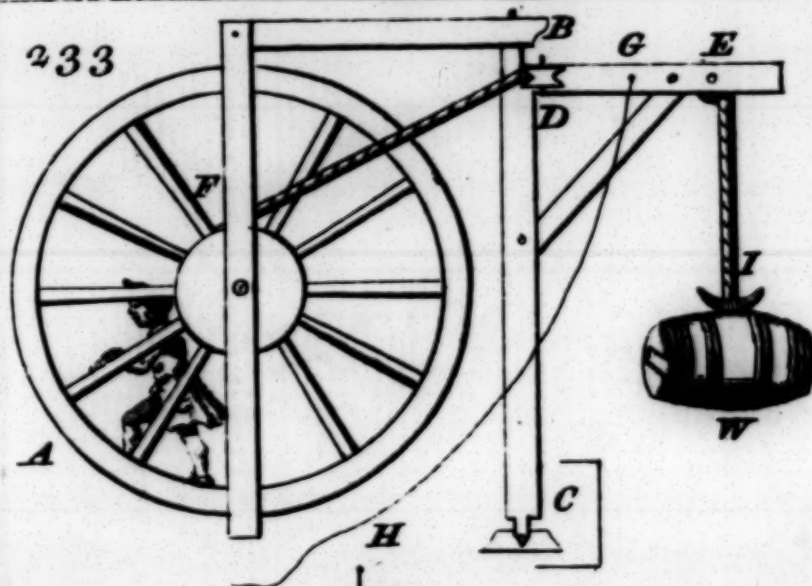
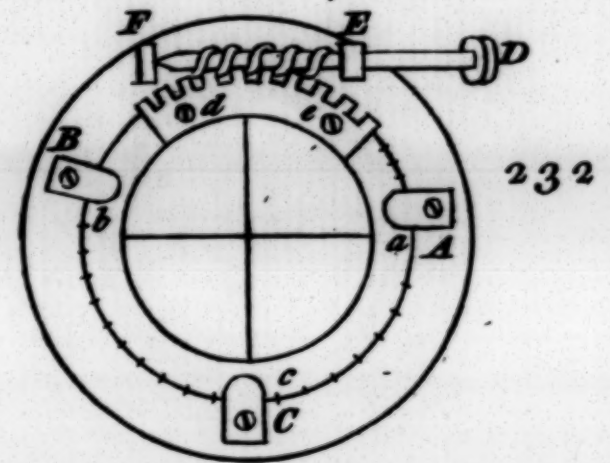
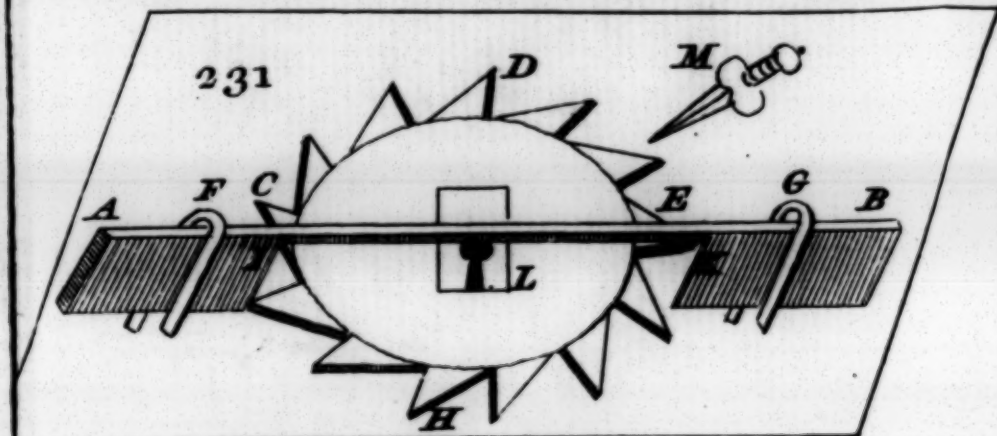


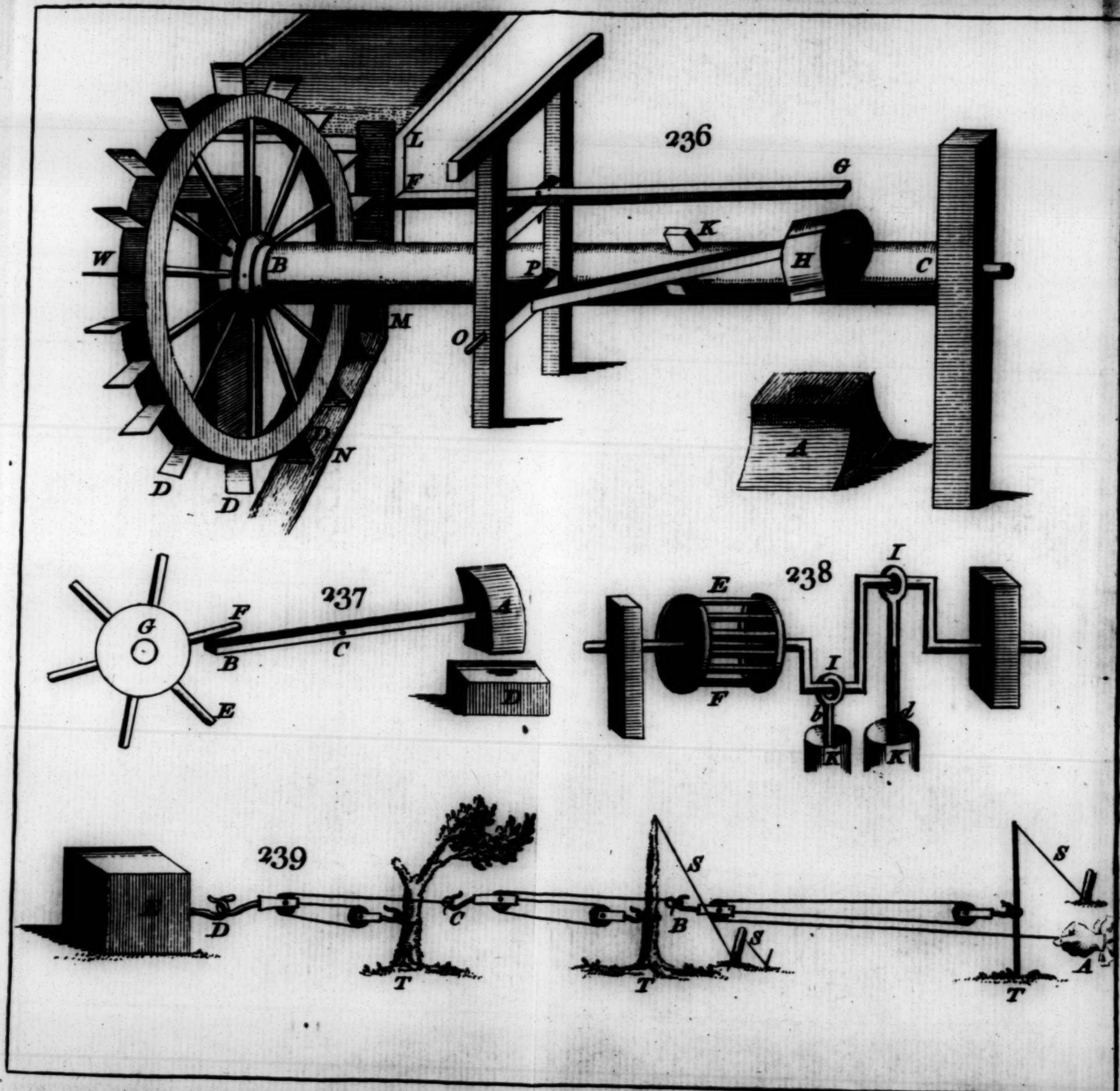


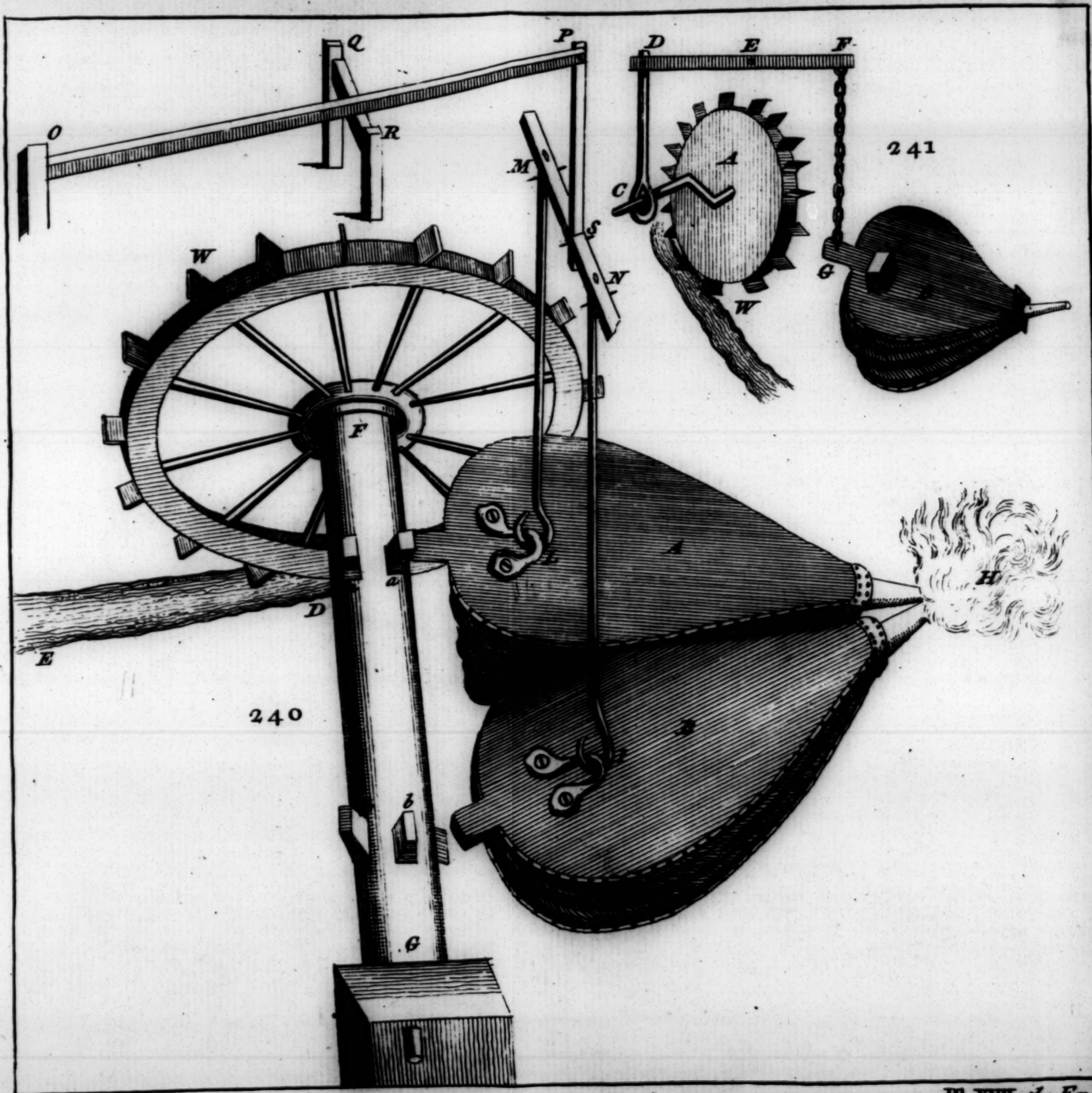


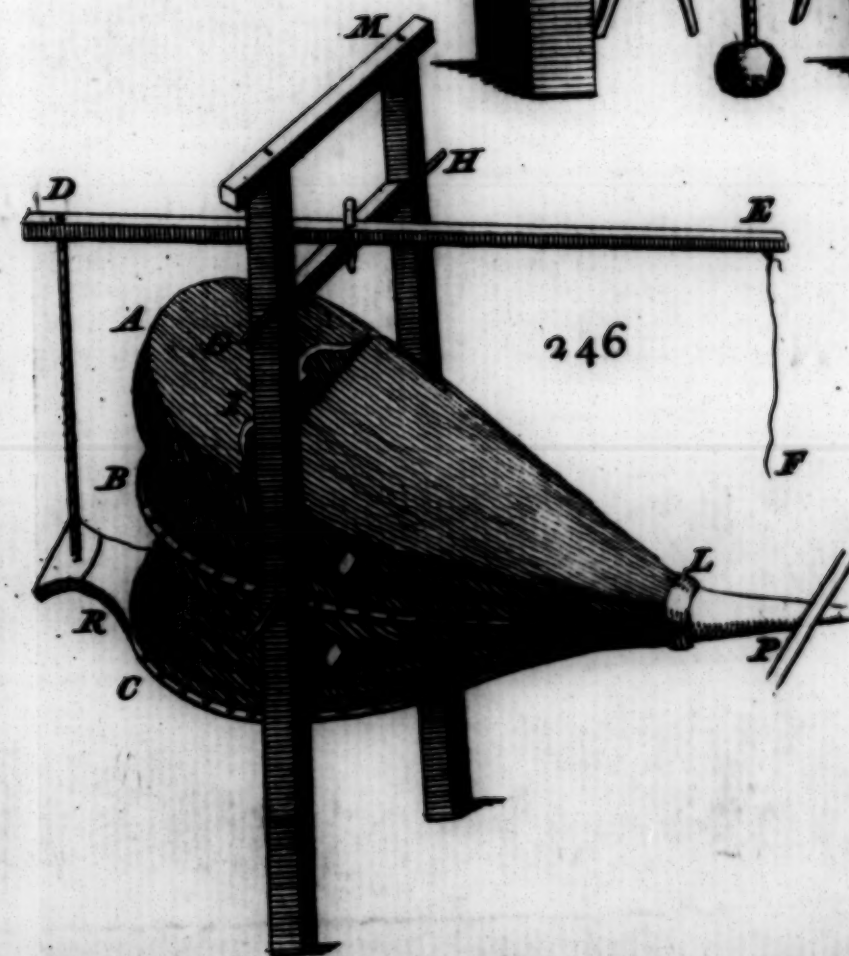
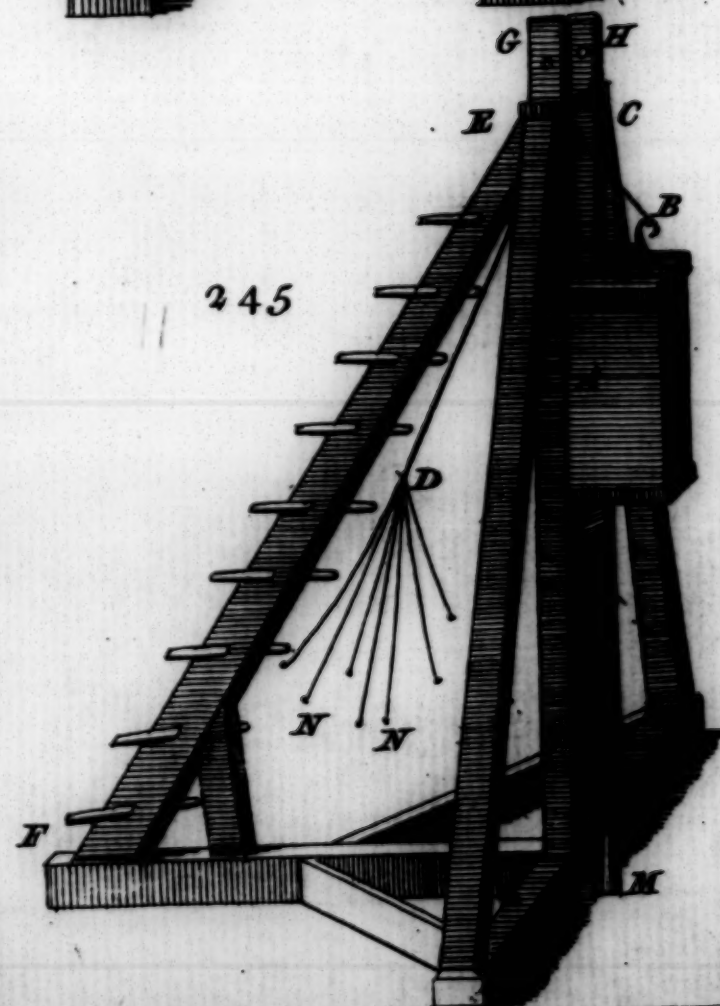
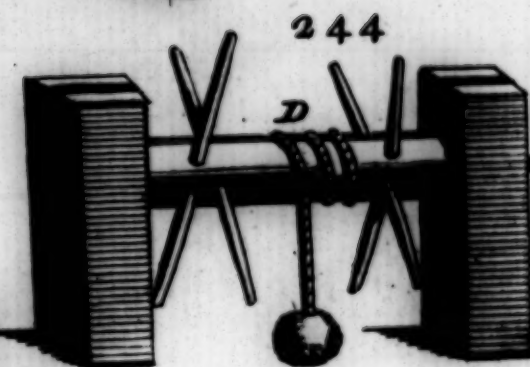
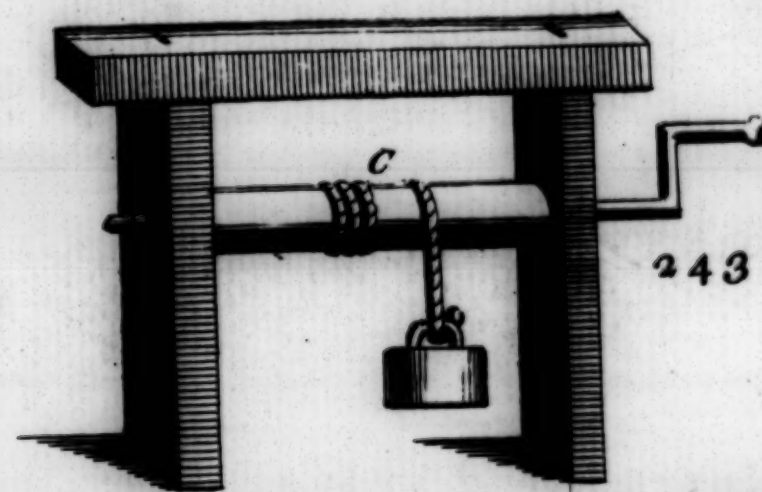
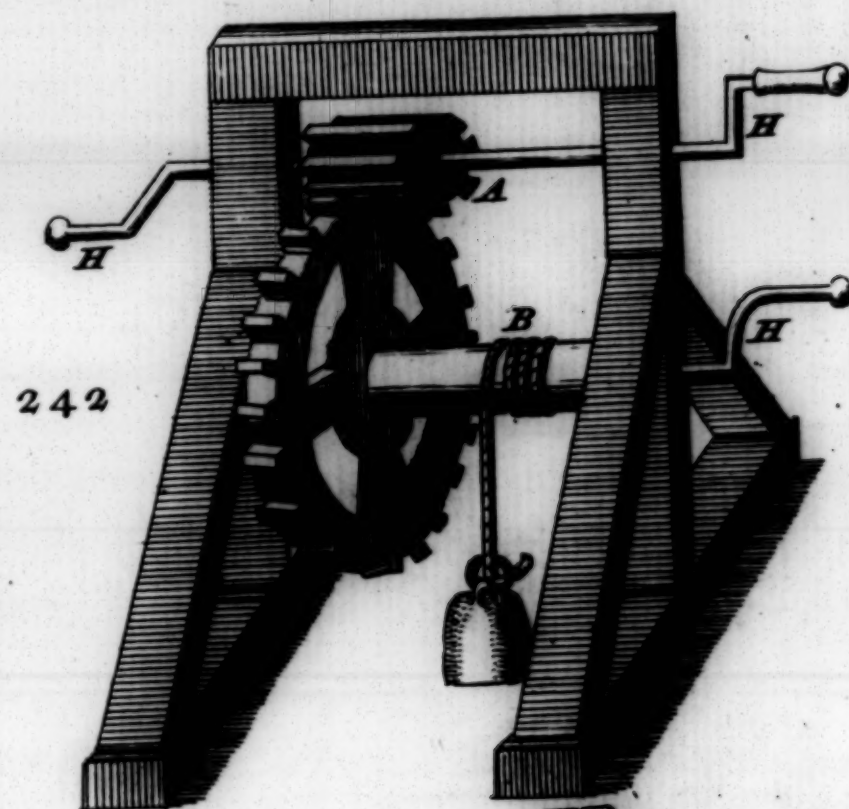


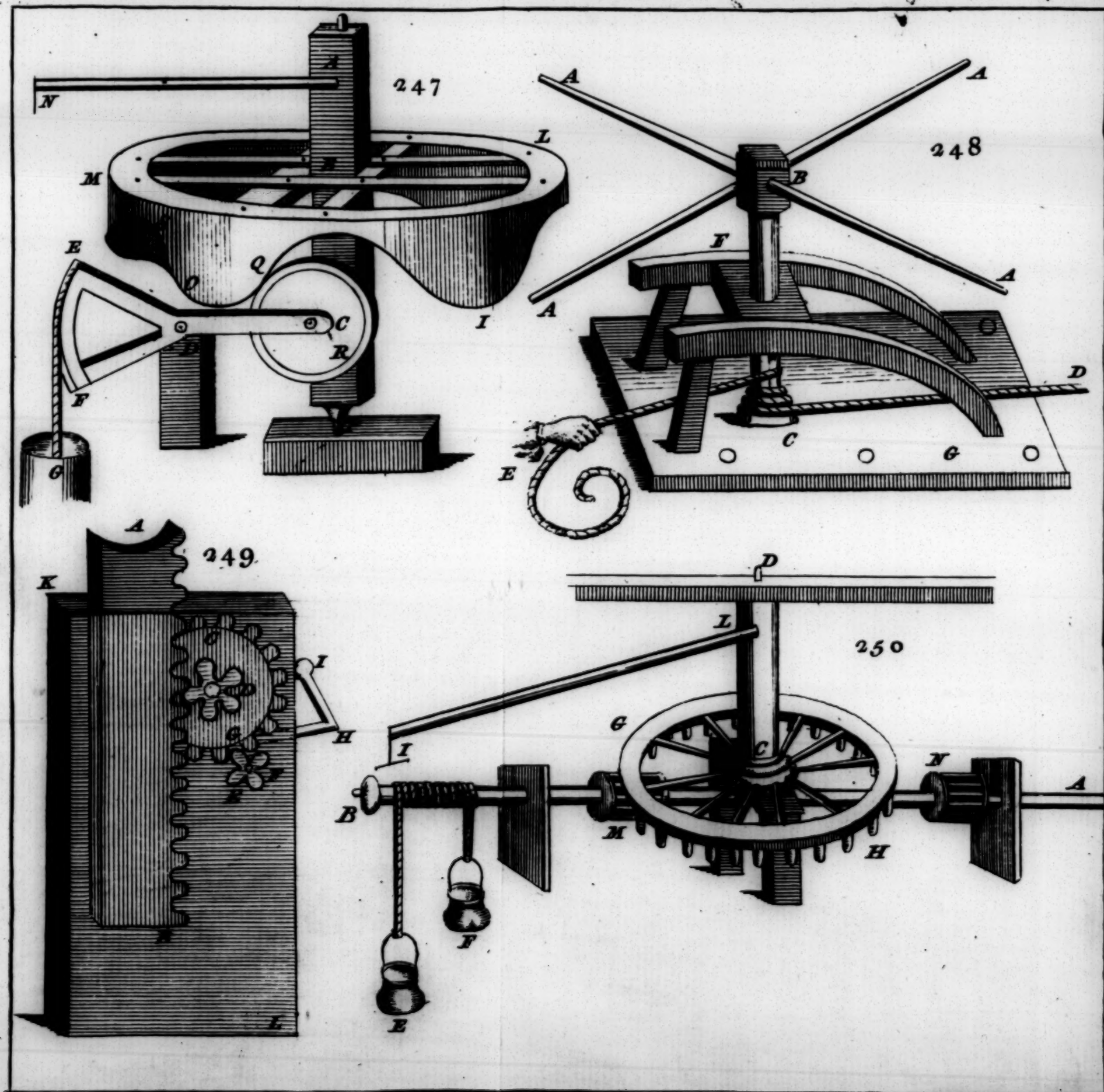


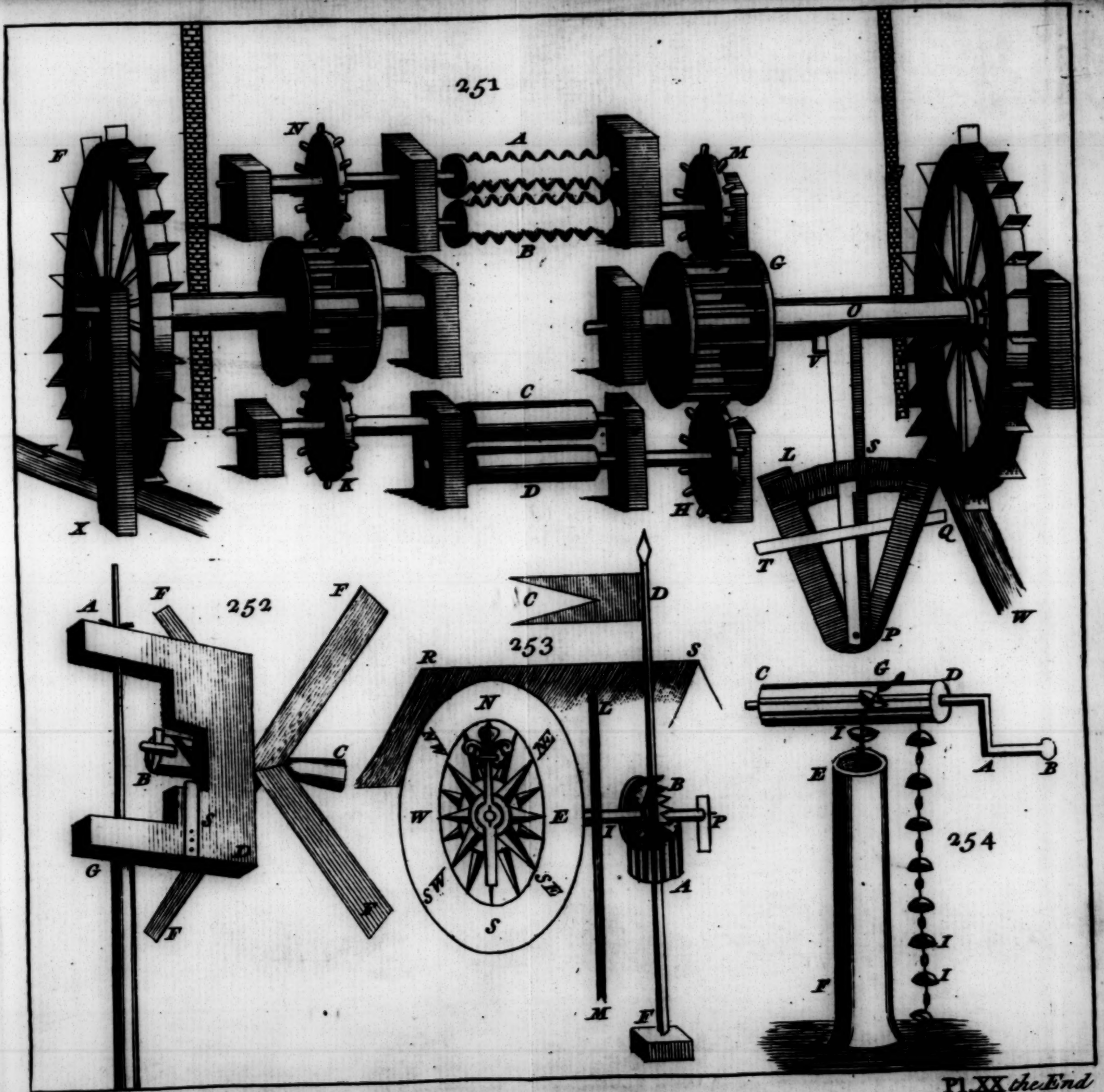


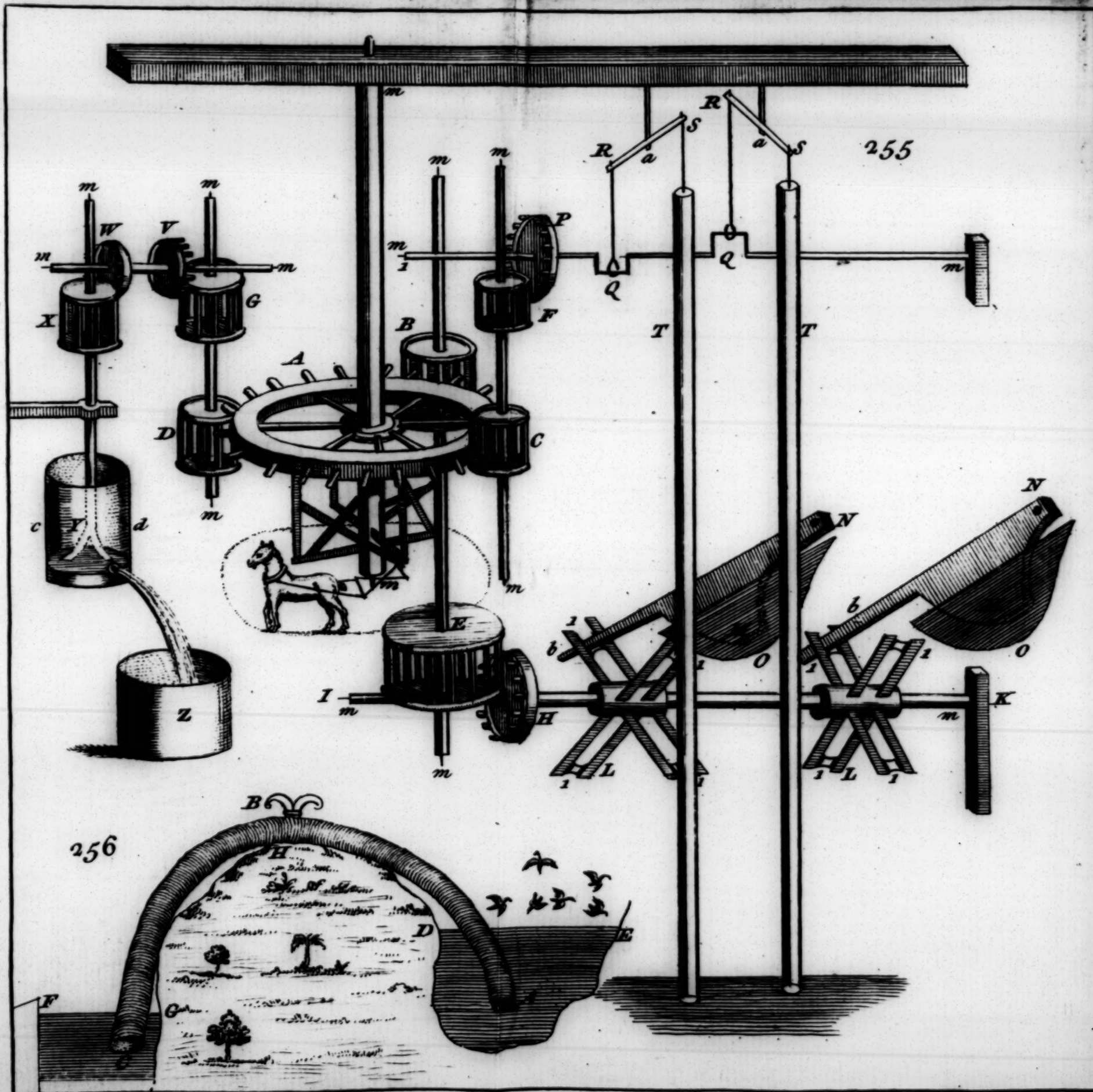


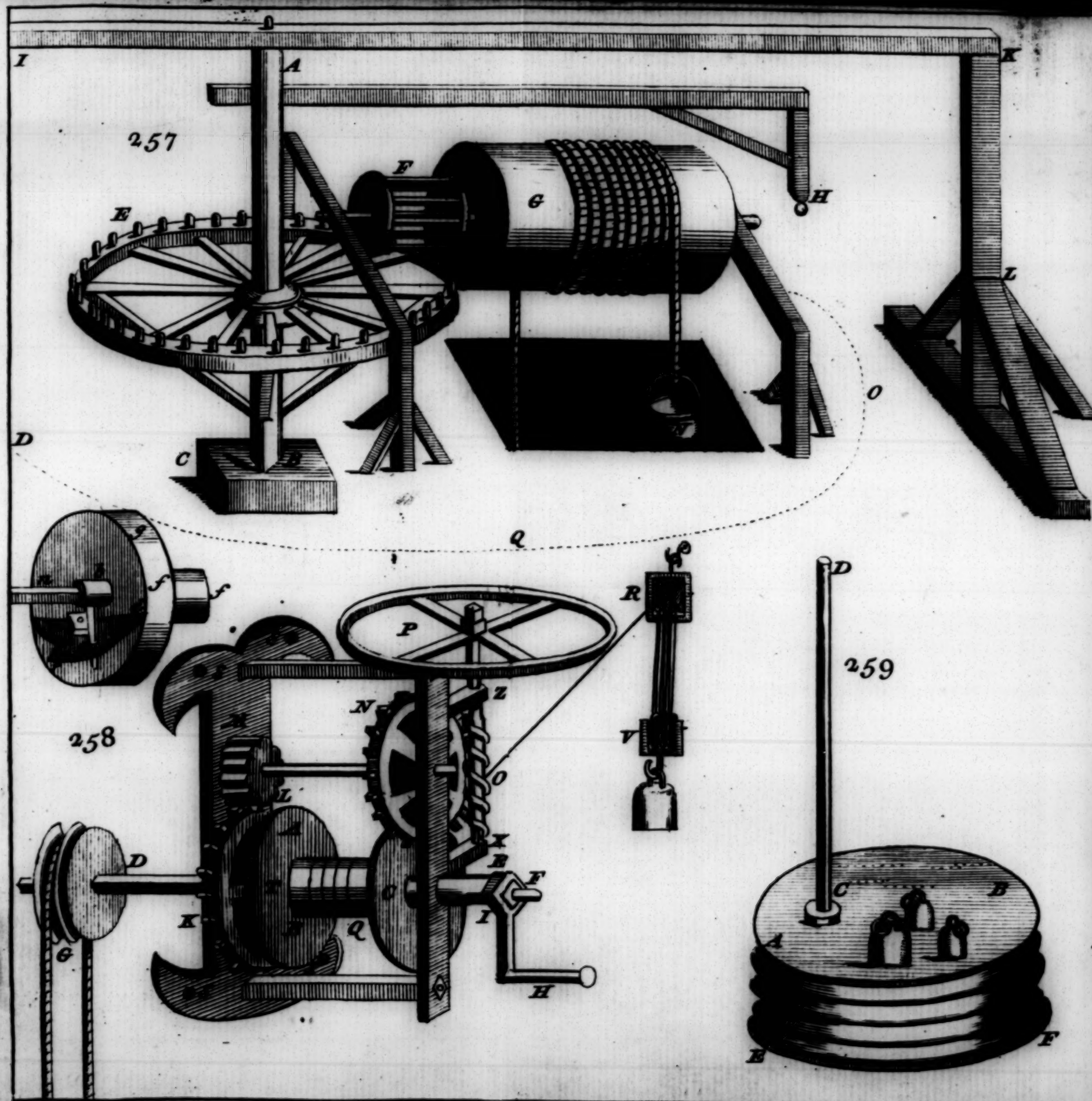


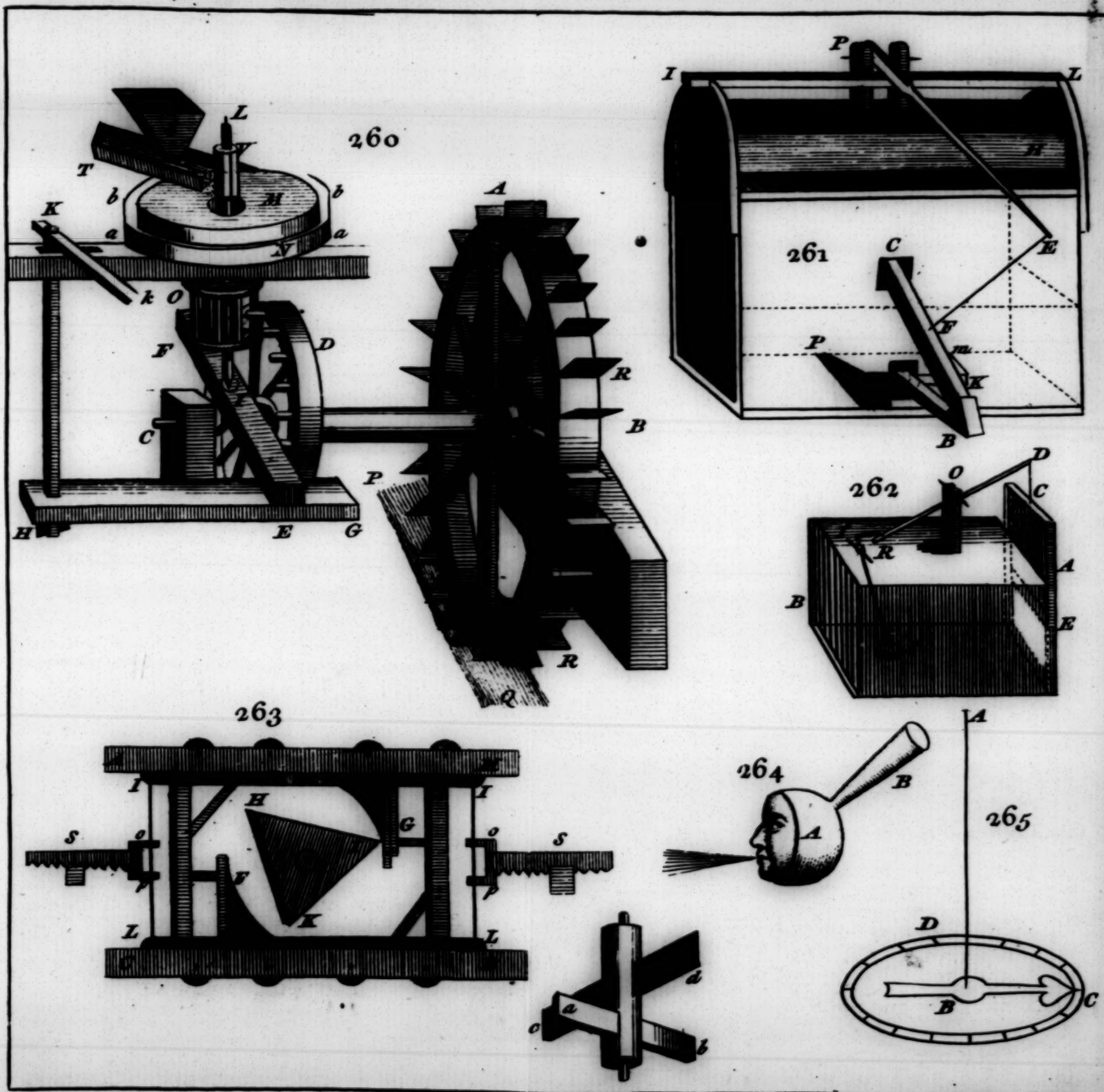


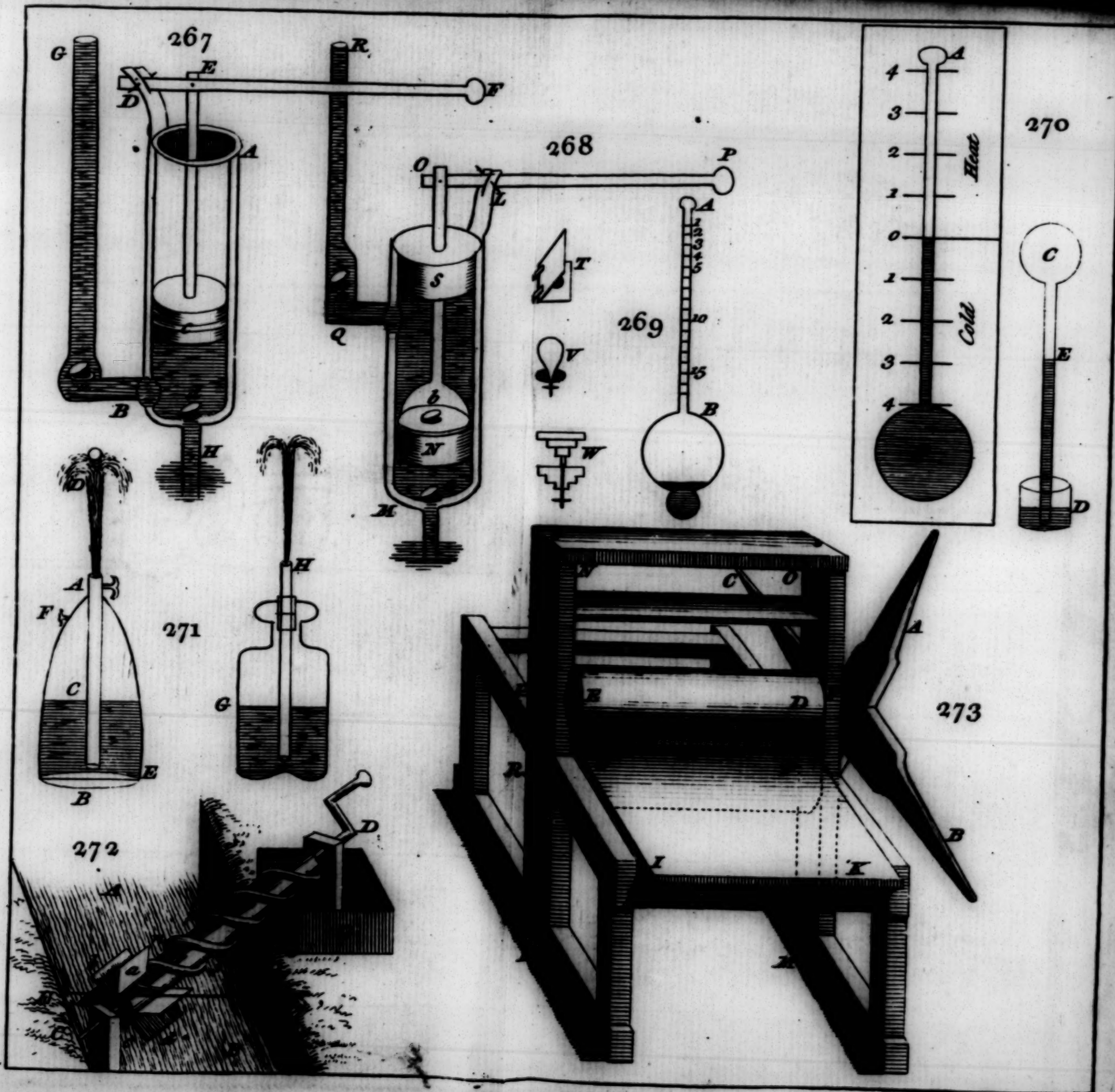


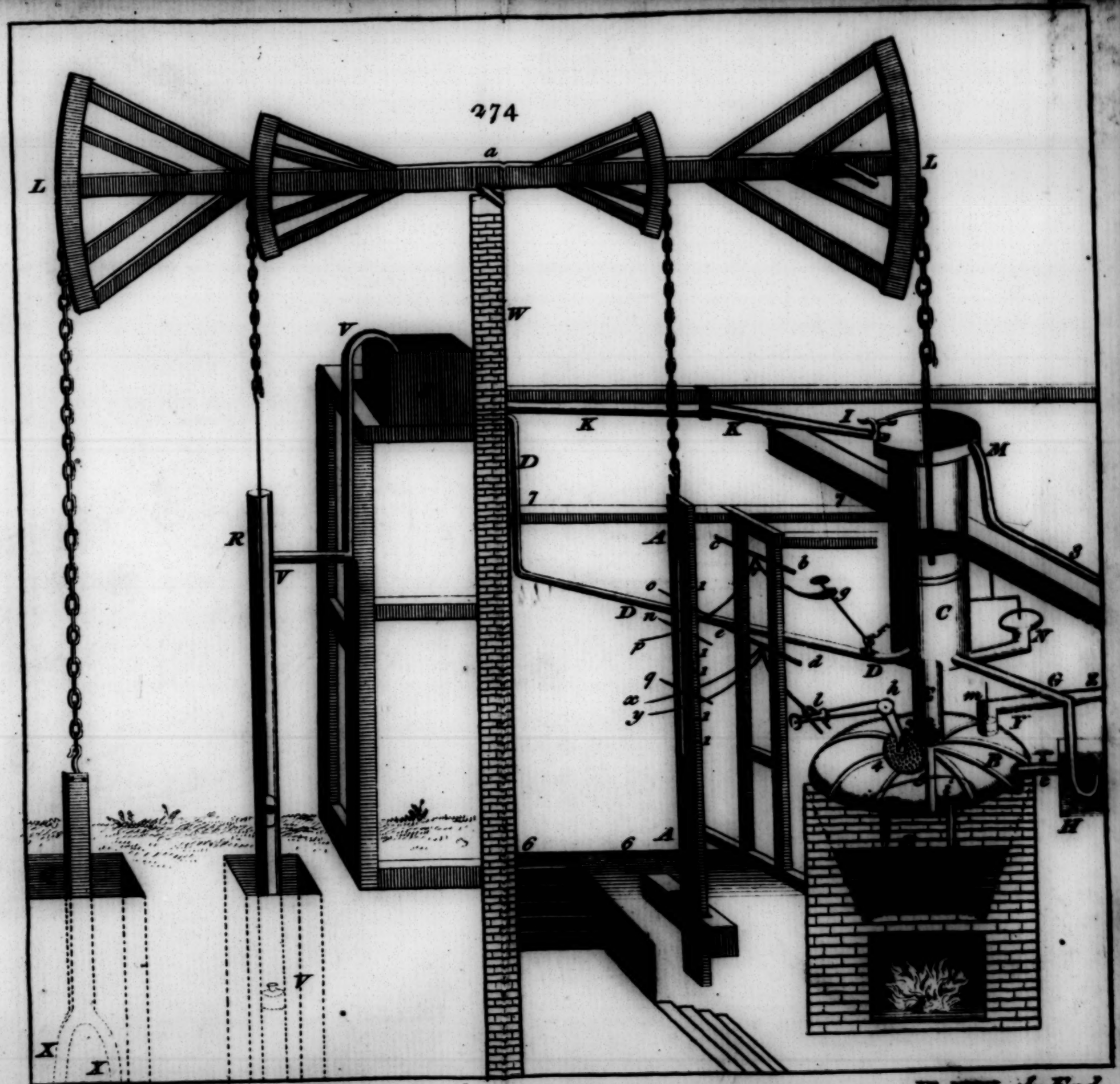


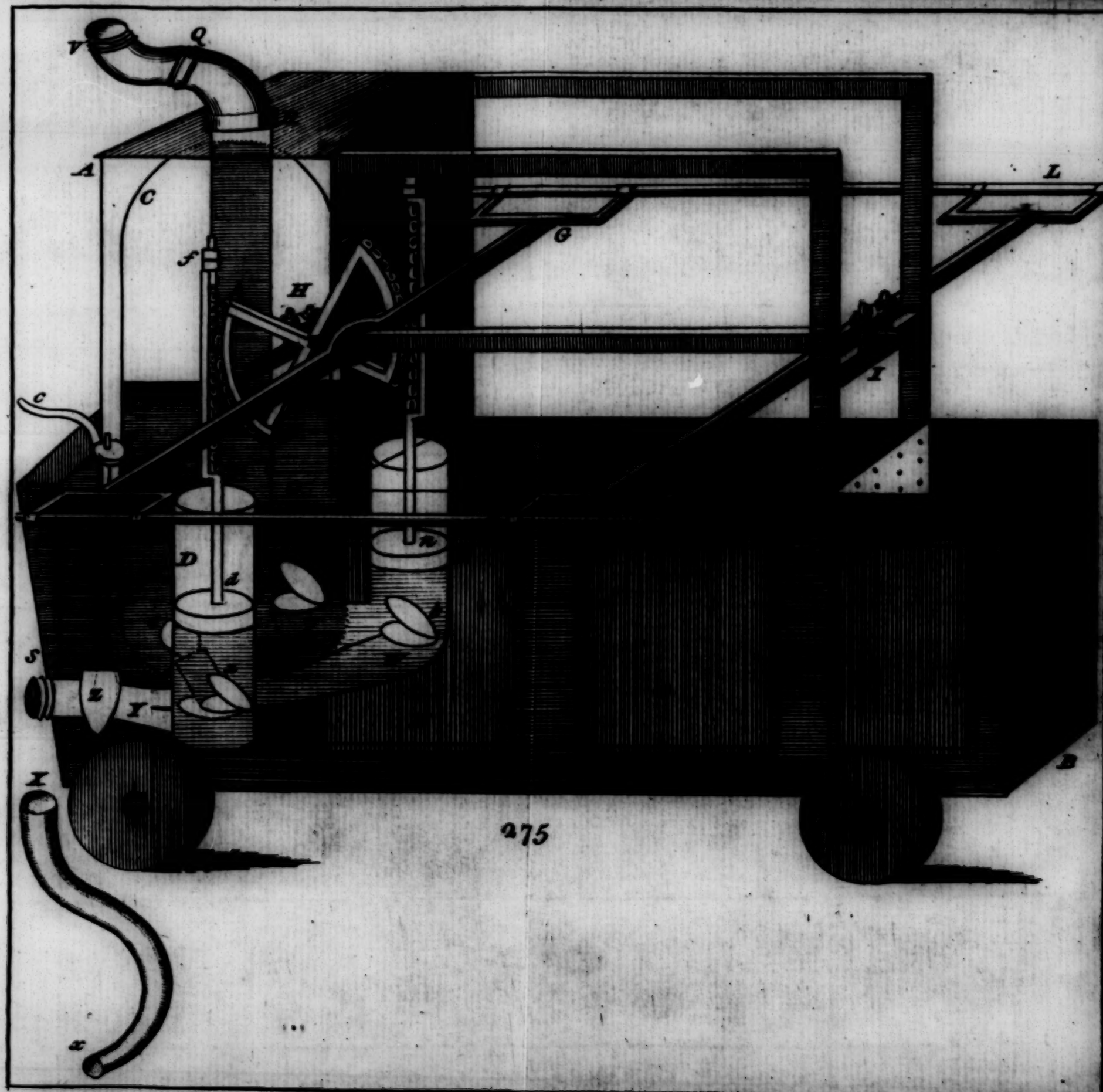












276

